

SUMMARY  
HISTORY  
OF  
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*Miss Hobson*  
SCOTT AND FARR'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND. 1868

A NEW AND COMPREHENSIVE  
HISTORY OF ENGLAND,

FROM THE  
EARLIEST PERIOD TO THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE III.,

EMBRACING  
THE BEST AND MOST RECENT AUTHORITIES.

Principally designed for Students in Schools and Colleges.

By ADAM SCOTT, Esq.

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WITH  
Upwards of Four Thousand Examination Questions,

By EDWARD FARR, Esq., F.S.A.,

AUTHOR OF "CONTINUATION OF HUME AND SMOLLETT'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND,"  
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ETC., ETC., ETC.

SIXTH EDITION.

LONDON:

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1866.





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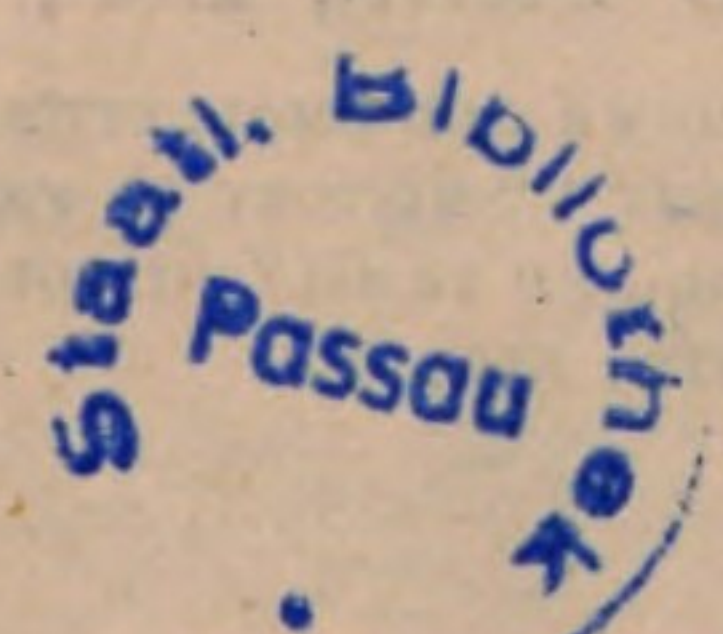
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## INTRODUCTION.

IN the wide range of academical studies there is none more important than that of history. This has long been acknowledged by all engaged in the great work of education. Hence it is that history forms such an important feature in educational literature. Historical works are, indeed, issued from the press for all classes of society,—from the child that has just learned to lisp its native language, to the reader whose mind is matured and grown to the full stature of a man. But if we were asked what volume of history is likely to become the most useful, we should reply, “That which is best adapted for youth just merging into manhood; for students who in a few short years will throw aside their books and engage in the active duties of life.” It is at that period of life when the mind embraces knowledge with ardour, and when the knowledge thus embraced fixes itself upon the memory with a lifelike tenacity. It is for that numerous class of students this history is prepared; and it is issued in the fullest confidence that it will meet their wants. For its pages are not a mere record of bygone events, partaking of the naked forms of registers and chronicles; but they are written with a fulness from which the student may learn and know how and by what means this country has risen from a state of weakness and barbarism to its present might and high state of civilization. This is essential in a history of England for students, especially when it is considered that compared with that of other nations it has qualities which give it a peculiar



interest and value. No country in the world has owed so much to wise legislation, or to the progress of intelligence among the people, as England. It has made itself feared by the vigour with which it has carried on its wars with other nations, but still more venerable by its manifestation of internal strength. Hence the contemplation of its growth is of far greater use to an inquiring mind than the study of a thousand volumes filled with accounts of empires that owed their glories—long since faded into dust—to the conquest of nations ruined by their success. The history of England is not simply a history of wars and conquests. Great battles have been fought and won by her sons from the earliest ages to recent times, but they rather form episodes *in* than the burdens of English history. England has, indeed, advanced to its colossal greatness more by the arts of peace than by the power of the sword. This is more especially the case in the later period of time. Since the great war in which our country was engaged with Napoleon, the pages of English history chiefly consist of details of legislation, and onward progress to the perfection of civilization. In some histories designed for the purposes of education these details are wholly ignored, while in others they are lightly passed over; but in order to illustrate the growing greatness of our country, and hence to render this work more valuable to the student, a condensed narrative of legislative progress, &c., has been introduced into its pages. To make the manual more perfect for the class for which it is designed, as well as for general readers, notable incidents, which could not be embodied in the historical text, are added at the close of each reign in which they occurred. Analytical questions are also printed at the bottom of each page for examination. While, therefore, this history may be used with profit by adult readers, it is especially adapted for students.

*Iver, June 1st, 1860.*



# THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

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## CHAPTER I.

OF BRITAIN, UNTIL THE ROMAN CONQUEST, 54 A.C.

1. *Introduction.*—From the eleventh century before the Christian era, Britain was known to the Phœnicians and other commercial nations on the shores of the Mediterranean, who traded to it for tin, lead, and other productions. In the earliest historical times it was inhabited by a people who spoke nearly the same language as those in most of the countries of western Europe. These people called themselves *Celtiaid*, a native word signifying inhabitants of the woods, from which was derived *Celtæ* and *Celtic*, the Latin and English terms for this race or people of a common speech. All inferences induce the belief that the Celtic race advanced from a state the most barbarous. Like the New Zealanders of the present day, they tattooed and stained or painted themselves of a blue colour with woad, in a hideous manner. This practice long prevailed in Britain after it had been generally discontinued by the more civilized continental tribes; which led them to call their island brethren *Brithon*, or the painted people, an epithet taken by the earliest Greek writers for their proper name. This term afterwards came to be varied into *Britannia*, *Britain*, *Britons*, &c. But the island was called by the natives *Alwion*, which signifies the country of *Gwion*, the deity most revered by them. This name was Grecianized into *Alouion* and Latinized into *Albion*. From this it may be considered that the common derivation of *Albion* from *albus*, white, is erroneous.

2. *State of Britain, 55 B.C.*—When Julius Cæsar, the great Roman general and historian, landed in Britain fifty-five years before the Christian era, he was surprised at the populousness of the districts near the mouth of the Thames, and

1. When did Britain become known? To whom? What metals did it supply? What was the language of its then inhabitants? What were they called? What does the term mean? How has it been varied? Why was the island called Britain? What was its native name?



there is reason to believe that many other districts were then equally well peopled. The population was divided into independent tribes, of which about forty-five have been enumerated, with distinct appellations, as the Cantii, Cassii, Trinobantes, Belgæ, &c. The inhabitants on the coast were found less barbarous than those in the interior. The former wore a dress of their own manufacture, and lived in circular huts of wood and reeds, with a hole in the centre to admit light and to discharge smoke. They had herds of cattle and were tolerable cultivators, using marl as a manure, and growing more corn than supplied their own necessities, which they stored in caves and threshed out only to serve their daily wants; but they neither baked bread nor made cheese. The inland inhabitants lived mostly upon milk, or flesh produced by the chase, and sheltered themselves in woods and caves. "What clothes they wore, to cover part of their bodies, were usually the skins of beasts; but much of their bodies, as the arms, legs, and thighs, was left naked, and those parts were usually painted blue. Their hair, which was long, flowed down upon their backs and shoulders, while their beards were kept close shaven, except upon the upper lip where it was suffered to grow. The dress of savage nations is everywhere pretty much the same, being calculated rather to inspire terror than to excite love or respect."

3. *Government*.—The form of government was different among the various tribes. In some the authority was collectively exercised; and in others by a single chieftain, "which seems to be the earliest mode of dominion with which mankind are acquainted, and deduced from the natural privileges of paternal authority. Upon great and imminent dangers a commander-in-chief was chosen by common consent in a general assembly; and to him was committed the conduct of the general interest, the power of making peace or leading to war."

4. *Religion*.—"The religion of the Britons was one of the most considerable parts of their government." It was directed by an order of priests, called Druids, who worshipped fabulous deities under various appellations. They also revered the oak, and under its shade they erected their temples, composed of huge rough stones disposed in circles, remains of which

2. When did Cæsar visit Britain? What did he remark of the inhabitants? What of their social state; first as to their classification? What are the other (nine) particulars taken notice of?

3. What was the ordinary form of government? What extraordinary?

4. Had religion anything to do with the government? What were its teachers called?



are still to be seen at Stonehenge near Salisbury, and at Hollywood in Dumfriesshire. "No species of superstition was ever more terrible than theirs: besides the severe penalties which they were permitted to inflict in this world, they inculcated the eternal *transmigration of souls*, and thus extended their authority as far as the fears of their votaries. They sacrificed human victims, which they burned in large images made of wicker-work, so capacious as to contain a multitude of persons at once, who were thus consumed together. To these rites, tending to impress ignorance with awe, they added the austerity of their manners and the simplicity of their lives. They lived in woods, caves, and hollow trees; their food was acorns and berries, and their drink water." By these arts they acquired such influence over the people, that all difficulties, whether civil, military, or religious, were submitted to their decision. If any one refused to abide by their sentence, they were forbid the sacrifices, unprotected by the laws, and excluded from all offices of honour. The ceremonies of All-Hallowmas, the bonfires of May-day and Midsummer-eve, the virtues attributed to the mistletoe, and various other existing customs, attest that the impressions of Druidism still linger among us. It is supposed that the Druids were divided into the *Druids*, the officiating priests; the *Vates* or *Vades*, the predictors and expounders of the secrets of nature; and the *Bards*, the heroic historians and genealogical poets. The chief-priest was called the Arch-Druid; and some writers consider that there were Druidesses, but Strabo expressly states that women were not taught their mysteries.

5. *Manners, Habits, &c.*—"It may be easily supposed that the manners of the people took a tincture from the discipline of their religious teachers. Their lives were simple, but they were marked with cruelty and fierceness; their courage was great, but neither dignified by mercy nor perseverance. Their forces consisted chiefly of foot, and yet they could bring a great number of horse into the field upon great occasions. They likewise used chariots in battle, which carried a driver and one or more warriors, with short scythes fastened to the ends of the axle-trees, which inflicted terrible wounds, spreading terror and devastation wheresoever they

4. Where did the Druids erect their temples? Why so? Are there any remains of them? What doctrine did they teach? What is said of their rites? What of their influence? What existing customs are of Druidical origin?

5. What is said of the manners and habits of the Britons? What of their mode of fighting?



drove. Nor while the chariots were thus destroying, were the warriors upon them unemployed; these darted their javelins against the enemy, ran along the beam, leaped on the ground, resumed their seat, stopped or turned their horses at full speed, and sometimes cunningly retreated to draw the enemy into confusion." But the prowess of the Britons was of little use or profit, for they were always quarrelling among themselves; and it was in consequence of these dissensions that they were unable to protect themselves against invasion.

6. *First Roman Expedition, 55 B.C.*—"The Britons had long remained in this rude but independent state, when Julius Cæsar, having overrun Gaul with his victories, and willing still farther to extend his fame," resolved to pass over into Britain, not, as he has himself stated, to make *then* a conquest, but merely to examine the country. Having embarked the infantry of two legions, together about 12,000 men, on board eighty transports, he sailed from Portus Itius or Witsand, between Calais and Boulogne, and the next morning (the 26th of August, 55 B.C.) arrived on the coast off Dover, where he saw the cliffs covered with armed men to oppose his landing. Finding the beach there unsuitable for disembarkation, he sailed about seven miles further along, and landed his troops in the afternoon near where Deal now stands, encountering a valiant resistance. Not dispirited, the Britons soon after made a violent but unsuccessful attack upon the Roman camp on the beach. This and other encounters having convinced Cæsar that his situation was precarious, he accepted promises of submission and hostages, and returned with his army to Gaul (now France) after an absence of only three weeks.

7. *Second Roman Expedition, 54 B.C.*—The promised hostages not having been sent, Cæsar made this the pretext for his second expedition in the following spring. This time the large force of five legions and 2000 cavalry, together about 32,000 men, were disembarked without opposition near the same place as on the preceding year. The Britons, under the command of Cassivelaunus, or perhaps Cassibelan in Celtic, bravely and skilfully harassed the advance of the Romans; but having been drawn into a general battle and defeated near Canterbury, some of the chiefs fled with their forces into the

6. Why did Cæsar visit Britain? Where did he come from? How many soldiers did he bring with him? Where did he land? When? Was his landing opposed? Why did he leave Britain? How long did he remain in it?

7. When did Cæsar return, and with what force? Where did he land the second time? Who was Cassivelaunus? How did he act against the enemy? By what means did the Romans obtain a victory?



interior parts of the country, others submitted to Cæsar. Soon after Cassivelaunus himself, weakened by so many desertions, "resolved upon making what terms he was able while he yet had power to keep the field. The conditions offered by Cæsar, and accepted by him, were, that he should send to the continent double the number of hostages at first demanded, and should acknowledge subjection to the Romans." Cæsar then returned, with his army, to Gaul, about the middle of September, and soon after went to Rome, where he was welcomed as a conqueror.

8. *State of Britain from 54 B.C. to 43 A.C.*—After the departure of Cæsar, Britain was left undisturbed for ninety-six years. But few events that happened during that long interval have been transmitted to us. Augustus Cæsar, the first Roman emperor and grand-nephew of Julius Cæsar, thrice announced his intention of annexing Britain to the empire, "but was diverted from it by the unexpected revolt of the Panno'nians (now the Austrians) and by the intervention of more important concerns. His successor, Tiberius, wisely judging the empire already too extensive, made no attempt upon Britain. From that time the natives began to improve in all the arts which contribute to the advancement of human nature. The wild extravagancies of Calig'ula, the next emperor, by which he threatened Britain with an invasion, served rather to expose him to ridicule than the island to danger."

9. *The Real Roman Invasion, 43 A.C.*—But in the forty-third year of the Christian era Britain was exposed to the horrors of a real invasion. Claudius, the fourth Roman emperor, at the instigation of an exiled chief, sent over four complete legions with their auxiliaries, making together about 50,000 men, under the command of Aulus Plautius. The Britons, who had made no preparations, at first offered no resistance; and when they took the field under Carac'tacus, or Caradoc, they were thoroughly defeated in the interior of the country by the Romans. This rude soldier however continued for above nine years, with greatly inferior forces, to oppose and harass the Romans; till at length he was totally

7. What were its consequences? What did Cassivelaunus afterwards do? What do expedition and invasion mean? Then, what ought Cæsar's military proceedings in Britain be called? Was his second landing opposed? How did his second expedition end?

8. What was the subsequent state of Britain? For how long? Why was it not disturbed?

9. Who projected the conquest of Britain? Who was sent for that purpose? What did he do?



routed in Shropshire, by Osto'rius Sca'pula, the successor of Plau'tius. Carac'tacus escaped from the carnage, but he was soon after betrayed and delivered up by his step-mother to Osto'rius, "who sent him in triumph to Rome, 51. While Carac'tacus was being led through Rome, he appeared no way dejected at the amazing concourse of spectators that were gathered upon this occasion, but casting his eyes on the splendours that surrounded him, 'Alas,' cried he, 'how is it possible that a people possessed of such magnificence at home could envy me an humble cottage in Britain!' The emperor was affected by the British hero's misfortunes, and won by his address. He ordered him to be unchained on the spot, and set at liberty with the rest of the captives."

10. *The Mona-Druids destroyed*, ab. 58 A.C.—The loss of the heroic Carac'tacus did not dishearten the Silures, the inhabitants of South Wales. They soon fell upon the Romans, broke up their fortified camp, and prevented them from erecting a line of forts across their country. For some time the Romans were held in check; but they resumed the offensive under Pau'linus Suet'onius, an officer of distinguished merit, who followed the defeated British warriors into the island of Mona, now Anglesea, the chief seat of the Druids and the refuge-place of the disaffected generally. He there obtained an easy victory: the altars were destroyed, the sacred groves felled, and the Druids burned in the fires they had prepared for their invaders.

11. *Revolt under Boadice'a*, 61 A.C.—But while Suet'onius was thus employed, a formidable insurrection broke out in his rear. "Prasa'tagus, king of the Ice'ni, an ally of the Romans, at his death, named the emperor joint heir with his two daughters, thus hoping, by the sacrifice of a part of his territories, to secure the rest to his family: but it had a different effect; for the Roman Procura'tor immediately took possession of the whole; and when Boadice'a, the widow of the deceased, attempted to remonstrate, he caused her to be scourged like a slave, and her daughters to be violated in her presence. These outrages were sufficient to produce a revolt throughout the island. The Ice'ni, as being the most deeply interested in the quarrel,

9. What did Carac'tacus say when led through the streets of Rome?

10. What did the Britons then do? What followed? Where did the defeated Britons and Druids retire to? Who destroyed the Druids and felled their groves of oak?

11. Who was Prasa'tagus? What did he do? What was the consequence? Who was Boadice'a? Who caused her and her daughters to be basely treated?



were the first to take arms; all the other states soon followed the example; and Boadice'a, a woman of great beauty and masculine spirit, was appointed to head the common forces, which amounted to 230,000 fighting men. These, exasperated by their wrongs, attacked several of the Roman settlements and colonies with success. They even recaptured the sacred island of Mona, on Suet'onius leaving it to relieve London, which was already a flourishing colony. On his arrival, he found however that it would be requisite, for the general safety, to abandon that place to the merciless fury of the enemy. London was immediately after reduced to ashes; such of the inhabitants as remained in it were massacred; and the Romans, with others who had joined in the insurrection to the number of 70,000, were cruelly put to the sword in various parts of the country. Flushed with these successes, the Britons no longer sought to avoid the enemy, but boldly came to the place where Suet'onius awaited their arrival, posted in a very advantageous manner, with a body of 10,000 men. Before the conflict commenced, Boadice'a, seated in a chariot with her two daughters, harangued her army with masculine intrepidity. The battle was obstinate and bloody; but the irregular and undisciplined bravery of her troops were unable to resist the cool intrepidity of the Romans. They were routed with great slaughter; 80,000 perished in the field, and an infinite number were made prisoners; while Boadice'a herself, fearing to fall into the hands of the enraged victor, put an end to her life by poison." Notwithstanding the extent of this disaster, Suet'onius left the island without finishing the war; and his successors for the subsequent fifteen years were obliged to remain inactive, or to stand on the defensive.

12. *Agri'cola completes the Conquest, 78-84 A.C.*—"The general who finally established the dominion of the Romans in this island was Ju'lius Agric'ola, who governed it for seven years, during the reigns of Vespa'sian, Ti'tus, and Domi'tian, and distinguished himself as well by his courage as humanity." He was appointed to command the Roman forces in Britain, about seventeen years after the revolt of Boadice'a. Within three years he subjugated and pacified the whole country south of the Tyne and the Solway Frith, between which he raised a rampart of earth and stones sixty-eight miles in length. In his fourth and fifth years,

11. What success at first attended Boadice'a, and what was the final result?

12. Who completed the Roman conquest? State his progress. What of the forts and ramparts he constructed?



he extended his conquests to the Friths of Forth and Clyde, and at this, the narrowest part of the island, he also constructed a rampart thirty-five miles in length. In his sixth campaign, he advanced into Fifeshire, and there encountered for the first time the Caledonians, a people as fierce and brave as any with whom he had hitherto contended. These mountaineers did not wait to be attacked; but assailed and destroyed several bodies of his troops. These successes however having drawn them into a general battle, they were beaten and dispersed for the season, when the Roman army wintered north of the Frith of Forth. Agricola, in his seventh and last campaign, advanced to the foot of the Grampians, where he found 30,000 Caledonians under the command of Galgacus, determined to oppose his progress. In the conflict which ensued, the host of Galgacus fought with great bravery; but they were no more able to resist the disciplined and well-armed legions of Rome, in a pitched battle, than their southern brethren had been. Four hundred Romans and 10,000 Caledonians are said to have fallen in this battle and in the pursuit. It appears that Agricola soon after withdrew his army behind his ramparts; and returned to Rome by command of the emperor Domitian, who was jealous of the renown he had acquired. Thus, after forty years of continuous warfare, the Roman dominion in Britain attained its utmost permanent limits, 84, A.C.

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## CHAPTER II.

FROM THE ROMAN CONQUEST UNTIL THE ANGLO-SAXON  
INVASION, 84 TO 455 A.C.

13. *Public Works, Government, &c.*—To protect their conquest, the Romans strengthened their double lines of defences between the Friths of Forth and Clyde, and the Tyne and the Solway, along which the legions were garrisoned. They constructed entrenched camps, and fortified towns and harbours, in different parts of the island, and connected them by military roads converging in London for the south and in York for the north. They divided the country into thirty-

12. Who was Galgacus? Where was he defeated? Why, and by whom, was Agricola recalled? How many years were the Romans in subjugating Britain? Were they continuously occupied in it during that time?

19-5. 13. What was done to preserve the conquest? How was the province divided, and governed?



three *civita'tes* or townships, which were grouped into six provinces. Each *civitas* enjoyed the privilege of choosing its own native magistrates; and each province was presided over by a deputy-governor, who was always a foreigner. Above these provincial magistrates, a Procurator or Vica'rius extended his overruling authority, subordinate only to the Prefect, with whom the emperor preserved an immediate communication. The Prefect and the Vica'rius were appointed by the emperor, and the duration of their power was dependent on his will. The natives were excluded from all the superior offices of authority and trust; and the Romans who held these offices were forbidden to marry a native, or to purchase lands, houses, or slaves in the island. The *civita'tes* were not all of the same rank: two were called *municipi'piæ*, nine *colo'niæ*, ten *civita'tes* possessing the *jure Latii* (the right of *Latium*), and twelve *stipend'ariæ*. The two *municipi'piæ* enjoyed all the rights of Roman citizenship, with the prerogative of enacting laws for their own observance, and exemption from the operation of the imperial statutes; the *coloniæ* were settlements of veteran legionaries, who held lands on condition of rendering military service when called upon: the *civita'tes* possessing the Latin right were districts granted to Roman colonists; while the *stipend'ariæ* were districts subject to the payment of tribute. Within each *civitas* or township were one or more towns\*, some of which certainly possessed many sumptuous temples, mansions, baths, and other structures, as proved by the remains found on their sites, as at Gloucester, Cirencester, Colchester, Lincoln, &c.

14. *Condition of the Natives*.—The Britons who lived around the Roman towns learned to speak the Latin language,

13. From what offices were the natives excluded? What were the Roman superior officers forbidden to do? What were the different classes of *civita'tes*? Do you recollect the names of their capitals? What is the modern name of Eboracum, &c.?

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\* The capitals of these *civita'tes* were—

1. *MUNICIPIA*:—Verolamium (near *St. Albans*), Eboracum (*York*).
2. *COLONIÆ*:—Londinium (*London*), Camalodunum (*Maldon*), Rhutupis (*Richborough*), Thermæ (*Bath*), Isca Secunda (*Caerleon*, Monm.), Glevum (*Gloucester*), Deva Getica (*Chester*), Lindum (*Lincoln*), Cambaricum (*Icklingham*, Norf.).
3. *LATIA JURE DONATÆ*:—Durnium or Durnomagus (*Dorchester*), Cataractonium (*Catterick*), Cambodunum (*Aldmundbury*), Coccium (? *Blackrode*, Lank.), Luynballia (*Carlisle*), Corinium (*Cirencester*), Sorbiodunum (*Old Sarum*); in Scotland—Ptoroton (*Burghhead*, Elg.), Victoria (*Dulgin Ross*, or ? *Stirling*), Theodosia (*Dumbarton*).
4. *STIPENDARIÆ*: Venta Silurum (*Caergwent*, Monm.), Venta Belgarum (*Winchester*), Venta Icenorum (*Caister*, near *Norwich*), Segentium (*Caernarvon*), Muridunum (*Caermarthen*), Ragæ or Ratæ (*Leicester*), Cantiopolis or Durovernum (*Canterbury*), Durinum Durobrovæ (*Rochester*), Isca Damnoniorum (*Exeter*), Bremenium (*Beampton*, in *Cumberland*), Vindonum (*Silchester*).



assumed Latin names, and adopted the customs of their masters. In the earlier stages of the war the hostile chiefs and tribes were treated with merciless severity; particularly on the eastern side of the island, where the chiefs were wholly swept away and the land allotted out to Roman colonists, who reduced the cultivators of the soil to a state of slavery. But this severity was not general; some chiefs were allowed to rule their territories as tributary governors. In such cases the native population were probably less oppressed.

15. *Roman Britain from 84 to 284.*—"For thirty years after the time of Agri'cola a profound peace seems to have prevailed in Britain, and little mention is made of the affairs of the island by any historian," which, as history has usually been written, is one of the best proofs of a nation's prosperity. After that time the Caledonians frequently crossed the line of defences, penetrated among the more southern Britons, and thus rekindled such a flame of independence as to demand the presence of Hadrian, the 14th Roman emperor, 121 A.C. Of the measures he adopted, we only know that he abandoned the conquests of Agri'cola beyond the Tyne and Solway, strengthened the defences of that boundary, and restored tranquillity in the southern provinces. In the following reign of Anton'inus Pius, the governor of Britain, Lollius Urbicus again drove the Caledonians beyond the Friths of Forth and Clyde, and repaired the rampart and forts of Agri'cola on that boundary (140 A.C.). The Caledonians however continued their incursions, giving the Romans much trouble and great alarm, until they were once more driven back to their mountains by Ulpus Marcellus. This able soldier acquired so much glory, that he was recalled by Com'modus, the 17th emperor, 180 A.C. Many of the Roman governors unsuccessfully attempted the subjugation of the Caledonians; and, by the silence of historians, Britain appears to have been comparatively tranquil from 211 to 284 A.C.

16. *Decline and Dissolution of Roman Power, 410 A.C.*—At length however Rome, that had for ages given laws to nations, and diffused slavery and oppression over the known world, began to sink under her own magnificence. Mankind, as if by a general consent, rose up to vindicate their natural freedom; almost every nation asserting that independence of which they had been so long unjustly

14. What is said of the natives after their subjugation?

15. What followed on the departure of Agri'cola? What did the Caledonians do? Were they subdued?

16. When did the Roman dominion begin to crumble?



deprived. About the year 284, Britain began to be ravaged by the barbarians who, under the name of Franks and Saxons, possessed the coasts of the ocean from the mouth of the Rhine to the extremity of Jutland. A powerful fleet was sent out against them, commanded by Carausius, who had risen by his valour to the highest military trusts. He however leagued with these pirates, and obtained a share of their spoil, which he employed in gaining over the Roman army and navy in Britain. He then declared himself emperor, and held the supreme power in Britain during nearly seven years (from 287–293), when he was murdered at York by Allectus, his admiral of the fleet, who assumed the imperial dignity. This tyrant, as provincial Pretenders were called, reigned about three years, when his forces, chiefly composed of Franks and Saxons, were defeated and himself slain, by a Roman army sent against him by the associate-emperor Constantius Chlorus, 296. From this time Britain remained undisturbed for more than seventy years, 368, A.C.

17. *The Picts and Scots*.—About the commencement of the fourth century the name of Caledonians disappear from history, and in their place are found the titles Picti and Scoti. The Picti were the original Britons who dwelt or retired beyond the Roman frontier, and there continued the practice of painting their bodies, which led the Romans to designate them Picti, the painted men. The Scoti were Irish Celts, who crossed over to the north-west coast of Britain, between the years 56 and 296, in such swarms as to outnumber the original population. They were more savage than the Picti, and were designated Ysgotiaid (woodlanders) by the South Britons, which term was Latinized into Scoti and Scotia. Hence the name of Scotia or Scotland, applied to the northern portion of Britain, is comparatively of modern origin.

18. *Their Incursions—Revolt of Maximus, 383 A.C.*—The first incursions of the Picts were easily repelled, but when joined by hordes of Irish Scots their united forces became very formidable, spreading death and devastation wherever they went. In the year 367, they burst from the north like a torrent, plundered London, and were only driven beyond the frontier, after a period of three years, by the celebrated Theodosius, the father of the emperor of that

16. Who harassed the coasts of Britain? Who was sent against them? What did he do? What happened to him, and to his successor? What was his name?

17. When are the Picts and Scots first heard of? Who were they?

18. What did they do? Were they successful? Who afterwards drove them out of Roman Britain?



name. They renewed their inroads after the tyrant, or pseudo-emperor, Ma'ximus, carried away, to return no more, the flower of the British army and youth to establish his authority over Gaul and Italy (383); and although the Picts and Scots were again wholly or partially expelled (about 399), still the northern districts were never afterwards reduced to order and tranquillity.

19. *Departure of the Legions, 402.*—The invasion of Italy by the renowned Alaric having led to the withdrawal of the legion stationed along the wall of Severus, the Picts and the Scots renewed their incursions, 402. The island was also menaced by the barbarians who had overrun and devastated Gaul (France). Alarmed at this danger, the soldiery in Britain revolted, and created an emperor for themselves. One Marcus was first chosen, and presently destroyed; then one Gratian, whom they murdered within four months. They next elected a common soldier named Constantine; but his reign was short, for having aspired to the whole empire of the West, and gone over to enforce his authority in Gaul, he was there taken and put to death, 411. After the departure of Constantine with the British forces, both Roman and native, the coasts and even the cities of Britain were harassed by the Saxon tribes that ravaged Gaul. To whatever quarter the Britons turned for help, the application was vain. The emperor Hono'rius was trembling before Alaric, and Constantine could not even protect the country where his army was encamped.

20. *End of the Roman Dominion, 409 A.C.*—In this extremity, the Britons displayed a magnanimous character. They took up arms to defend themselves, and to expel the Picts, Scots, and Saxons, who had not failed to renew their devastations. Having done this they deposed the Roman magistrates who acted under the authority of Constantine, established a local government of their own, and renounced all dependence upon the Roman empire, 409. The emperor Hono'rius was content to cede what he was unable to defend, to confirm measures which he was unable to repeal, to release the cities of Britain from their allegiance, and to acknowledge the national independence, 410. Thus the Roman dominion was legally and amicably abolished in

18. Who led an army into Gaul, and what became of both?

19. When, and why were the Roman legions withdrawn? What followed?

20. What did the Britons next do? When the Britons declared themselves independent, how did the Roman emperor act? What was his name?



Britain, after having prevailed over the best part of it for more than three centuries.

19. *Britain during its Re-independence, 410.*—When freed from the imperial authority, it is probable that the thirty civitates south of the Tyne and the Solway became independent communities or republics, governed by their respective popularly-elected native magistrates (see § 13). That this event did happen, seems to be fully proved by the letters of release sent from the emperor Honorius addressed to the civitates of Britain. It may likewise be inferred that these thirty civitates soon began to quarrel with each other; and that the authority in each was seized by individuals who called themselves kings. It is also certain that paganism was generally restored, that civilization gradually declined, and that by degrees all traces of popular government were lost. In this period of independence and civil contention, it is said that the chiefs raised one of themselves to the dignity of chief of chiefs, or king over all, and made the dignity elective. This institution, so well calculated to promote union against foreign aggression, became on the contrary a source of internal weakness. Of the two parties, the town or Roman and the country or Native, into which the population was divided, each was dissatisfied with a monarch from the other. These jealousies and dissensions greatly facilitated the inroads of the Picts and Scots, who never failed to profit by every opportunity for devastation. On two occasions the Britons received from their former sovereign Honorius the assistance of a legion to repel these marauders; and to repair the walls built by Adrian and Severus, which, having done, they finally left the island, 420.

20. *Saxons called in—Hengist and Horsa, 449.*—The Picts and Scots then began to look upon Britain as their own, and successfully attacked the northern wall, which the Romans had built to keep off their incursions. Having thus opened to themselves a passage, they ravaged the whole country with impunity, forcing the Britons to seek precarious shelter in the woods and mountains. In this extremity it was determined to do as the Roman emperors had long done—to hire some of the bravest of the barbarians—and to employ them against the others. The Britons had recourse to the Saxons, who were, on account of their strength and valour, a

19. When freed from the Roman authority, what followed? What religious and political changes took place? What did their dissensions lead to?

20. What did the Picts and Scots then do? Who was Vortigern? What expedient did he propose?



terror to all the German nations around them. They were a people restless and bold, who considered war as their trade; and were taught to consider victory as a doubtful advantage, but courage as a certain good. A nation however entirely addicted to war has seldom wanted the imputation of cruelty, as those terrors which are opposed without fear are often inflicted without regret. The Saxons are represented as a very cruel race of men; but we must remember that their enemies have drawn the picture. It was no disagreeable circumstance to these ambitious people to be invited into a country, upon which they had for ages before been forming designs. In consequence therefore of Vortigern's solemn invitation, who was then chief-king of Britain, they arrived with 1,500 men, under the command of the brothers Hengist and Horsa, who landed on the easternmost point of Kent, then the Isle of Thanet, 449. There they did not long remain inactive; but being joined by the British forces, they boldly marched against the Picts and Scots, who had advanced as far as Lincolnshire, and soon gained a complete victory over them. They then obtained for a settlement the fertile Isle of Thanet, and they were supplied, according to the treaty, with a plentiful supply of provisions and clothing.

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### CHAPTER III.

THE ANGLO-SAXONS, FROM THEIR ESTABLISHMENT IN BRITAIN  
TO THE FIRST LANDING OF THE DANES, 455-787 A.C.

21. *The Saxons*.—During the second century, the barbarous tribes that inhabited the sea-coast to the north of the Elbe formed a great confederacy, calling themselves Saxons, or *short-sword-men*; a name which afterwards became common to the nations from the mouth of the Rhine to the extremity of Jutland. They lived by pillage and piracy, and burned the Roman fleets that were sent against them. Their audacity increased as the Roman power diminished, and they began to colonise places which they had depopulated. The principal tribes were distinguished by the titles of Jutes, Angles, and Saxons—properly so called. The Jutes dwelt in the peninsula of Jutland, and the Angles south of them in Schleswig

20. What is said of the Saxons? What were the names of their commanders? When and where did they land?

21. Who were the Saxons? Where did they live?



and Holstein, down to the town of Flensburgh. In Holstein there is still a district called Anglen, which is believed to be the real "Old England," the original seat of the tribe (the Angles) that gave its name to South Britain. The Saxons Proper were below the Angles, probably occupying the whole breadth of country from the shores of the Baltic to Friesland. The language and robust form of the Saxons prove them to have been of the pure Gothic or Teutonic race; all their chiefs claimed descent from Wodin, the deified ancestor of the Teutons, who flourished between 200 and 300 years after the Christian era, and whose capital (real or traditional) is still shown at Stigsund near Stockholm, the present capital of Sweden. Their vessels at first were little better than a few planks roughly joined and covered with osier or skins; but in the fifth century, they had improved them so much that they frequently made descents on the neighbouring coasts, braving storms, tempests, and every other danger. They committed such devastations that the contemporary Roman historians declared them to be the most formidable enemies of all the nations beyond the Rhine.

22. *Kingdom of Kent from its Foundation, in 455 to 800*—The Saxons served the Britons faithfully during six years, when, "being sensible of the fertility of the country to which they came, and the barrenness of that which they had left behind, they invited over great numbers of their countrymen to join in permanently establishing themselves. Accordingly, they received a fresh supply of five thousand men, who passed over in seventeen vessels." Both parties now prepared for war. The Saxons first induced the Picts and Scots to invade the north, and then crossed over from their settlement in Thanet, which at that time was separated from the mainland by a channel of the sea, nearly a mile in width. After numerous contests the Saxons were compelled to leave the island, but they speedily returned with greater force. In a battle that followed, Vortigern lost a son, and Hengist his brother Horsa; in another, fought at Crayford in Kent, the Britons were defeated with great slaughter, and driven to London, 457. Hengist then gained possession of all Kent, for the preservation of which he was engaged in hostilities until his death, 488. Hengist was succeeded by his son Eric, surnamed Esc or Ash-tree, who is called the first actual king of Kent. He reigned twenty-four years, and founded the Escingas dynasty, 488-512. When fairly established in his

21. What is meant by the term race (§ 1)? Who were the Teutons?

22. How did the Saxons conduct themselves? How and where did they first establish themselves? What designation did they give to it?



fertile territory, Eric laid down the sword: his son, and his son's son, lived equally in peaceful obscurity. Ethelbert, fourth in descent from Esc, married the Christian princess Bertha, sister of Charibert King of Paris, and gave great splendour to the state, 560–616; but Kent soon afterwards declined, and finally lost its independence between 794 and 800.

23. *Vortigern and Rowena*.—"The British historians, in order to account for the easy establishment of the Saxons in their country, assign their treachery, not less than their valour, as a principal cause. They allege that Vortigern was artfully inveigled into a passion for Rowena, the daughter of Hengist; and was induced, in order to obtain her in marriage, to settle the fertile province of Kent upon her father, from whence the Saxons could never after be removed. It is also alleged that, upon the death of Vortimer, which happened shortly after his victory at Egglesford, his father Vortigern was reinstated upon the throne. It is further added, that this weak monarch having accepted of a festival from Hengist, three hundred of his nobility were treacherously slaughtered, and himself detained as a captive." These details have been so often told, that they acquire a kind of prescriptive right to credit; but the probability is that they have no other authority than an early ballad.

24. *Kingdom of Sussex*, 477–514.—Twenty-eight years after the first arrival of Hengist, several other German tribes, allured by the success of their countrymen, came over in great numbers under the conduct of Ella and his three sons, 477. They landed on the isle of Selsey, in the territories of the Regni, and made themselves masters of nearly all Sussex and part of Surrey, though not without continuous opposition and bloodshed during thirteen years, 490. This *second* conquest was called the kingdom of the South Saxons, or Sussex. Ella, upon some unexplained ground, was elected *Bretwalda* or Emperor of Britain. This pseudo-pre-eminence was evidently an imitation of the Roman imperial authority, as it was wholly foreign to any species of government existing among the Saxons before they came into Britain. Sussex never became formidable, and is therefore little mentioned after the death of Ella in 514.

25. *The Kingdom of Wessex*, 495.—Eighteen years after Ella, another tribe of Saxons under the command of Cerdic

23. How were the Saxons allowed to establish themselves so easily? What tales are related of Vortigern and of Hengist?

24. How was the *second* Saxon kingdom established? What was it called? Who was the first Bretwalda?



and his son Kenric, landed in the modern Hampshire. These met with a very vigorous resistance from the natives; but being reinforced from Germany, and assisted by their countrymen on the island, they routed the Britons; and although retarded in their progress for about twenty-four years by the celebrated king Arthur, they had strength enough to keep possession of the conquests they had already made. Cerdic therefore, with his son Kenric, established the *third* Saxon kingdom in the island—namely, that of the West Saxons, or Wessex, including the counties of Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight. Cerdic died in 543. He does not appear to have done more than to have maintained himself in the district where he landed; but his posterity enlarged his settlements into a kingdom, so powerful as to absorb all the others in the island.

26. *Prince Arthur*.—"It was in opposing Cerdic that the celebrated prince Arthur acquired his fame. However unsuccessful all his valour might have been in the end, yet his name made so great a figure in the fabulous annals of the times, that some notice must be taken of him. This prince is of such an obscure origin, that authors are uncertain whether he was the son or nephew of Ambrosius, a British king of Roman descent. However this be, it is certain he was a commander of great valour; and, could courage alone have repaired the miserable state of the Britons, his might have been effectual. According to the most authentic historians, he is said to have worsted the Saxons in twelve successive battles. In one of these—namely, that fought at Caerbadon in Berks, it is asserted that he killed no less than 440 of the enemy with his own hand. But the Saxons were too numerous and powerful to be extirpated by the desultory effect of single valour; so that a peace, and not a conquest, were the immediate fruits of his victories. The enemy therefore still gained ground; and this prince, in the decline of life, had the mortification, from some domestic troubles of his own, to be a patient spectator of their encroachments. His first wife had been carried off by Melnas, king of Somersetshire, who detained her a whole year at Glastonbury; when Arthur, discovering the place of her retreat, advanced with an army against the ravisher and obliged him to give her back. In his second wife he might, perhaps, have been more fortunate, as we have no mention made of her; but it was otherwise with his third consort, who was debauched by his own nephew, Medrawd.

25. Who checked the progress of Cerdic? For how long?

26. Who was Prince Arthur? What valorous feat is related of him? What disquieted him in the decline of life?



This produced a rebellion, in which the king and his traitorous kinsman, meeting in battle, slew each other," 542.

27. *The Kingdom of East Anglia*, 527-777.—“In the meantime, while the Saxons under Cerdic were gaining ground in the west, their countrymen were not less active in other parts of the island. Adventurers still continued to pour over from Germany: one body of these, called Angles, under the leadership of Uffa, apparently divided into two tribes—the North-Folk and the South-Folk, seized upon the territory now included in the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge; and gave to their commander the title of King of the East Angles or East Anglia, which was the *fourth* Saxon kingdom founded in Britain.” This territory was then almost insulated from the rest of the island, by a succession (on its western side) of bogs, mires, and broad lakes, connected for the most part by numerous streams. Where these natural defences ended, the East Angles dug a deep ditch and cast up a lofty rampart of earth. In the middle ages, this was called the “Giant’s Dyke,” a name which was afterwards changed into the “Devil’s Dyke.” The marshes upon which it leant have been drained; but the remarkable mound is still very perfect. The sovereigns of East Anglia were distinguished by the patronymic of Uffingas, or sons of Uffa. East Anglia maintained its independence until 777, when it was annexed to Mercia.

28. *The Kingdom of Essex*, 530.—Another body of Saxons, under Ercenwine or Eswyn, took possession of the flats of Essex; and formed the state of the East Saxons or Essex, comprehending Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire. This kingdom formed the *fifth* Saxon principality founded in Britain. Eswyn’s son Sleda was married to Briola, daughter of Ethelbert, king of Kent, who afterwards appears as the superior, or sovereign of the country; and though Sleda was *King*, yet Ethelbert joined in all important acts of government. This was the fate of Essex. It is styled a kingdom, but it never enjoyed any political independence, being always subject to the adjoining kings.

29. *The Kingdom of Bernicia*, 547-590.—After establishing a colony in East Anglia, and essaying some partial invasions of the north-east coast of Britain, the whole population of the Angles put themselves in motion, under the conduct of a warrior named Ida, and his twelve sons. Their numerous vessels made the land between the mouths of the Forth and the Tweed. The better to assure their success against the Britons of this part of the country, they entered into an alliance with the Picts; and these confederate enemies,

26. Who killed him?

9th.



advancing from the east and west, struck such terror into the natives, that the king of the Angles received from the inhabitants the surname of the *Firebrand* (Flamddwyn). The progress of the Angles was strenuously resisted by Urien, the chief of Reged, and the hero of the Bards. The Britons appear to have fought more obstinately in those parts than in any other. Ida was killed on the banks of the Clyde in the twelfth year of his reign, 559; but a great and decisive battle was soon after fatal to the British cause. Among the slain were many chiefs wearing the collar of gold, the badge of high command among the Britons, of whom few returned to their homes from this combat. "On their return," says an ancient poet, "they told to their wives a tale of peace; but in vain, for the smell of blood was on their garments." The victorious invaders thereafter spread themselves along all the eastern coast, between the Forth and the Tyne. This conquest constituted the *sixth* Germanic state in Britain, and obtained the name of the kingdom of Bernicia, the latinized form of *Bryneich*, its native name.

30. *The Kingdom of Deira*, 560-590.—The death of Ida produced a division of his associates. Ella quitted Bernicia and sought, with those that followed him, a new fortune by attacking the British kingdom of Deifyr, between the Tees and the Humber, 559. Although able to form an establishment in this district, many years elapsed before it was completely subdued. This was the *seventh* independency founded in Britain. It retained its native name, which was varied into Deira. Ella reigned thirty years, and left an infant son Edwin, whose inheritance was annexed to Bernicia by king Ethelfrith when the two states were called Northumbria, 590.

31. *The Kingdom of Mercia*, 580-827.—Twenty-six years after the death of Ida, Anglian adventurers from Bernicia and Deira crossed the Humber and founded the *eighth* and last German state in Britain, under the name of Mercia, 580. They extended themselves progressively towards the west and east at the expense of the Britons and the Saxons; not considering themselves so closely connected with the latter by a community of origin, as the Saxons with one another. In the Mercian territories the Britons were not destroyed or expelled, but lived mixed up in about equal numbers with the Angles. Crida is named as the first Mercian sovereign; but it was his grandson, Penda, a fierce and valiant warrior, who disclaimed the supremacy of the northern Angles, 627-655.

31. Who were Ella, Cerdic, Ercenwin, Uffa, Ida, the second Ella, and Crida?



Mercia became very powerful, and embraced all the midland counties on both sides of the Trent. It maintained its independence until 827, when King Wiglaf submitted to Egbert of Wessex.

32. *The Heptarchy, an erroneous Term.*—When the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms thus established in Britain are collectively spoken of, they have been customarily called *The Saxon Heptarchy*. As this term means *seven* independent governments, it must be rejected, however familiar by usage, because an idea is thereby conveyed which is erroneous. At no period of our history were there ever *seven* kingdoms independent of each other. As the Anglo-Saxons warred with each other, sometimes one state was for a time absorbed by another; sometimes, after an interval, it emerged again. If that term ought to be used which expresses the complete establishment of the Anglo-Saxons, it should be *Octarchy*; if not, then the denomination must vary as the tide of conquest fluctuated. If the collective governments are to be denominated from the nations who peopled them, as these were three, the general term should be *Triarchy*, but it is obvious that octarchy is the appellation that best suits the historical truth.

33. *The Saxons war against each other.*—"The Saxons, having firmly established themselves in all the most desirable parts of the island, and being no longer in danger from the Britons, began to quarrel among themselves. A country divided into a number of petty independent principalities, must ever be subject to contention; as jealousy and ambition have more frequent incentives to operate. These wars were commenced by Ethelbert, the fourth successor of Hengist, who unsuccessfully invaded Cealwin king of Wessex, in 568. This precedent was followed by Cealwin, who seized the kingdom of Sussex on the death of its sovereign Cissa, in 514. By annexing it to Wessex, he changed the Saxon octarchy into a temporary *heptarchy*. Then, in 617, the quarrelsome Ethelfrith, the grandson of Ida and king of Bernicia, invaded Deira, expelled Edwin the infant son and successor of Ella, and annexed his dominions to his own, which converted the Saxon

31. State the modern counties that were included in the kingdoms established by them. What period elapsed between the first arrival of the Saxons and the establishment of their last independency?

32. What is meant by the terms *heptarchy* and *octarchy*? Why then have the kingdoms founded in England by the Anglo-Saxons been collectively called *The Heptarchy*?

33. How did the Saxon rulers behave to each other?



states in England into an *hexarchy*. These united states of Deira and Bernicia, which comprised all the Saxon countries north of the Humber, were now called the kingdom of Northumbria or Northumberland. After this time the Saxon kings were constantly at war with each other, which created continual changes in the political condition of the island. In the year 700, for example, Britain was divided into no less than seventeen principalities, of which seven were governed by Saxon princes, and ten by chiefs of Celtic lineage. In no division of the country were changes more frequent and violent than in Northumbria. No less than seventeen sceptered chiefs hurled each other from the throne, and the deaths of the greatest number were accompanied by great numbers of their friends. The Northumbrian dynasty was extinguished by the Danes in 867.

34. *Old-Saxon Government.—Kings.—Bretwaldas.*—Before the Saxons arrived in Britain there was no political power of any wide extent vested in any one individual, excepting during hostilities. A chieftain was then elected to head the nation, but his rule expired with the urgency that had given it birth, and all the chiefs were alike again. The earlier chiefs all claimed descent from Woden, and appear to have been the priests, as well as the lawgivers and leaders of their tribes. These chiefs were called Ealdormen, Aldermen, or Eldermen in plain English. When the title Cyng or king, probably derived from the Celtic words Cen or Cean (head or chief), was adopted in Britain, it does not appear to have been restricted to the leaders or chiefs, as we read of five kings of Wessex being killed in one battle, who consequently could only have been subordinate chiefs. When the word 'king' came to denote sovereign power, then the subordinate chiefs resumed their native appellation—Aldermen, which continued until the Danish conquest. This alteration of designations rendered it necessary to create another, one to distinguish King of Kings, one who was as much above the Kings, as each king was above his Aldermen. When this dignity was conferred on Ella, the first king of Sussex, he was styled *Bretwalda*, emperor, or monarch of all Britain. These were elected by their peers, the sovereign kings; but the succession was not continuous, there being only seven Bretwaldas between 490 and 570, and then an interval of 157

33. What was the result? What instances are given?

34. What was the nature of the Old-Saxon government? Who were the chiefs? What offices did they fill? When and where was the title of 'king' first adopted by the Saxons? What authority is the Bretwalda supposed to have had?



years. They seem to have been elected to wield the united Anglo-Saxon power against a common enemy; and also to prevent warfare between the respective kings, in which respect they wholly failed.

35. *Conversion to Christianity, 597.*—When the Saxons settled in Britain they were cruel and superstitious idolaters. They had many gods, and they venerated their images; but that the progress of their manly intellect was fast operating to shake the attachment to the national superstitions, we may infer from the candour with which they listened to the first Christian missionaries, and from the rapidity with which they adopted the Christian faith. “It was in the year 596 that Pope Gregory, surnamed the Great, undertook to send missionaries among the Saxons, to convert them to Christianity. It is said, that, before his elevation to the papal chair, he chanced one day to pass through the slave market at Rome, and perceiving some children of great beauty who were set up for sale, he enquired about their country, and finding they were Anglian Pagans, he is said to have cried out in the Latin language, *Non Angli, sed Angeli, forent, si essent Christiani*, ‘They would not be English, but angels, if they were Christians.’ From that time, Gregory was so struck with an ardent desire to convert that unenlightened nation, that four years after he became Pope he ordered a monk named Augustine, with forty others of the same fraternity, to undertake the mission to Britain. This pious monk, upon his first landing in the Isle of Thanet, some time in the year 597, sent one of his interpreters to Ethelbert, the Kentish king, declaring he was come from Rome with offers of eternal salvation. The king immediately ordered them to be furnished with all necessaries, and even visited them, though without declaring himself as yet in their favour. Augustine, however, encouraged by this favourable reception, and now seeing a prospect of success, proceeded with redoubled zeal to preach the gospel. The king soon became a convert, and thereafter openly espoused the Christian religion; an example which wrought so successfully on his subjects, that numbers of them came voluntarily to be baptized, the missionary loudly declaring against any coercive means towards their conversion.” Ethelbert liberally supplied Augustine and his companions with the means for performing divine worship with decency and solemnity. A church at Canterbury, that had been built in the Roman times, was repaired; and many

35. What of the religion of the Saxons? How was Christianity introduced among them? To whom did the missionaries first repair? How did the king receive them? What were the consequences?



ample possessions were granted to it for the maintenance of the priests who were to become its ministers. The cathedral of Canterbury stands upon the site of this church. "Soon after this the other kingdoms, one after the other, embraced the faith; and England was soon as famous for its superstition as it had once been for its aversion to Christianity."

#### CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE FIRST LANDING OF THE DANES TO THE SUBVERSION OF THE ANGLO-SAXON DOMINION, 787-1066.

36. *First Landing of the Danes, 787.*—Three hundred and thirty-eight years after the landing of Hengist and Horsa in the Isle of Thanet, three strange vessels made the shore of Dorsetshire, and landed their crews near one of the "king's towns." The gerefafa, or mayor of the town, and his escort went to see the strangers, who allowed them to approach, then surrounded and killed them all, plundered the neighbouring inhabitants, and then set sail (787). From this era the Danes became the incessant and inveterate foes of Britain and its inhabitants, visiting every part of the island with fire and sword. They considered the English, for this familiar name now began to be in use, as apostates and recreants from the warlike virtues and the religion of their common ancestors.

37. *State of England in the Year 800.*—England, though nominally under an *hexarchy*, or government of six kings, was rapidly merging into a triarchy, or government of three kings. The petty powers of Kent, Essex, and East-Anglia, had already become subordinate to Mercia: Northumbria had ceased to molest its neighbours: Wessex had enlarged itself by the incorporation of Sussex; its population and wealth having increased under a series of able sovereigns, who had reduced the nobles of the land to an useful subordination. The force of Wessex was therefore a well-organized concentration of various powers, ready to operate with all their energies for any great purpose to which they should be summoned.

38. *Egbert, King of Wessex and Bretwalda.*—At this

35. What was England soon after famous for?

36. When and where did the Danish pirates first land in England? What did they then do? And what afterwards?

37. What was the state of England in the year 800?



crisis, EGBERT, the only existing descendant of Cerdic, and the great-great-grandson of Inigils, the brother of Ina, succeeded to the throne of Wessex, 800. The first fifteen years of his reign were passed in tranquillity, which fostered his growing strength. He then essayed his military strength in establishing his authority over the inhabitants of Devonshire and Cornwall, 815. He next had to resist the hostility of the jealous Mercians, who invaded Wessex with all their forces. The wary and active Egbert met them at Elyndorne, near Wilton (in Wilts), with an army very inferior in numbers, but in superior fighting condition: being, to use the expression of our old quaint chroniclers, "lean, meagre, pale, and long-breathed;" whereas the Mercians were "fat, corpulent, and short-winded." Egbert gained a complete victory (823); and soon after annexed Mercia and all its dependencies to his kingdom, obtaining, also, the submission of the King of Northumbria, 827. Egbert however did not assume the title of King of England; but contented himself with the style of King of Wessex, and with the dignity of Bretwalda. Thus, at the end of 372 years after the establishment of the Saxons in Britain, the Anglo-Saxon octarchy merged into a monarchy—a government under one sovereign.

39. *The Danes and Northmen—Sea-Kings.*—"Peace and unanimity had been scarcely established in England, when a mighty swarm of those nations who had possessed the countries bordering on the Baltic, began to level their fury against England." Although popularly called Danes and Northmen, they were composed of the tribes or peoples who lived on the coasts of Norway and Sweden, of Jutland, of the island of Zealand and those adjacent. The general aspect of the north in the eighth and ninth centuries was remarkable for two peculiarities, especially fitted to produce a race of pirates. These were, the numerous petty chieftains or kings who ruled in its various regions, and the sea-kings who swarmed upon the ocean. In Norway these chieftains were called *fiki*, and ruled over a district which could furnish twelve ships, containing sixty or seventy well-armed men. The Sea-kings were first called Vikingir, which may have meant 'kings of the bays;' and afterwards Her-konger, or

38. Who was Egbert? What was his policy? How did he become master of Mercia? Who next submitted to him? What new title did he assume? How many years elapsed from the establishment of the Saxons in Britain, until they fell under one sovereign? What is government by one man called?

39. What new enemy next appeared? Where did they come from? What were their leaders called?



'kings of armies.' They, without a yard of territory or visible nation, with no wealth but their ships, no force but their crews, and no hope but from their swords, visited every district which they could reach, making it the theatre of their enterprise. It is declared to have been a law or custom of the north, that all the male children of a land-king, except the heir, should betake themselves to the sea. Hence the sea-kings were the kinsmen of the land-kings. When the royal youths were about to become sea-kings, the ships and their equipments were furnished as a patrimonial right, and perhaps as a political convenience. In the ninth century, these were not the only sea-kings; the land-kings made piracy their summer occupation, and every man of importance equipped ships and roamed the sea to acquire property by force. So respectable was the pursuit considered, that parents forced their children into the dangerous and malevolent occupation. If civilization, science, and Christianity have hitherto neither subdued political ambition nor discouraged warfare, even under trivial pretexts, it is not surprising that the untaught Northmen delighted in the depredations to which they were educated, from which they derived honour and fame, and by which they subsisted.

40. *Danish Incursions*, 832.—In the year 832, when Egbert was in the plenitude of his power, these ferocious pirates plundered the Isle of Sheppey, and in the next year defeated Egbert at Charmouth in Dorsetshire. Again, in 835, they landed in Cornwall, where they were joined by the Cornish Britons, who hoped to be freed by their assistance from the thralldom of their Saxon lords. Egbert defeated their combined forces with great slaughter; and soon afterwards died, after a reign of prosperity seldom rivalled, 836.

41. *Ethelwulf*, 836–856.—The death of Egbert checked for a while the ascendancy of the West Saxons, and disunited the power which he had laboured to consolidate. His son ETHELWULF, immediately on his accession, gave his son Athelstane the independent sovereignty of Kent, Sussex, and Essex. This procedure induced the subordinate kings of his father to disclaim his paramount authority, at the very time the Danes had become as terrible to the Saxons as they had been to the Britons. Consequently for the first fifteen years of his reign, Ethelwulf was just able to keep the Danes in check; but without gaining any permanent advantage. In

39. What is said of the sea-kings?

40. What did the Danes do in Edgar's time?

41. Who was Edgar's successor? What was his policy? What were the consequences?



851, the Danes first ventured to winter in the Isle of Thanet, and now formed the daring project of remaining in the countries which they insulted. Next spring, they attempted the most serious invasion which England had yet experienced. They repeatedly sailed up the Thames and Medway: London was stormed and pillaged: Rochester and Canterbury shared the same fate; and the southern districts were attacked and ravaged. The Mercians were assailed with equal hostility; and the need of co-operation against the common enemy became so manifest, that they and the West Saxons agreed to unite for mutual defence. By this means the invaders were expelled from the main land after several sanguinary battles. "Though often repulsed, they always obtained their end of spoiling the country, and carrying the plunder away. It was their method to avoid coming, if possible, to a general engagement; but, scattering themselves over the face of the country, they carried away, indiscriminately, as well the inhabitants themselves, as all their movable possessions."

42. *Ethelbald, and Ethelbert*, 856–871.—During the last years of Ethelwulf and the reign of his son ETHELBALD, the Danes left England unmolested, turning their fury against the opposite coasts of France, 860. At length, in the third year of the reign of ETHELBERT, brother to Ethelbald, they resolved to make a settlement in the country. They landed on the coast of Hampshire, burned Winchester his capital, and again wintered in the Isle of Thanet, which they now made their rendezvous, just as the Saxons had done more than four centuries before, 864. This king, like his brother, was taken off prematurely, after a reign of six years.

43. *Real Danish Invasion*, 866.—The sons of Ethelbert were passed over in favour of his next brother ETHELRED I., whose abilities however were insufficient to repress the Danish incursions. It was in the first year of his reign, that the real invasion of England took place under Halfden, Ingwar, and Ubba, three sons of the renowned Regnar Lodbrok. The invaders landed and wintered in East-Anglia; and next spring took York and subdued Northumbria (867). Having determined on establishing themselves in their conquests, many settled around York and cultivated the land assigned to them. Next year the main army crossed the Humber and established themselves in Nottingham, where

42. What did the Danes do in the reigns of Ethelbald and of Ethelbert?

43. What took place on the accession of Ethelred? Narrate the progress of the Northmen during his reign.



they wintered, 868. Two years afterwards, they ravaged Lincoln and Nottinghamshire, burned the churches and monasteries, putting the inmates to the sword without distinction of age or sex, 870. They next subjugated East-Anglia, overran Mercia, invaded Wessex, and surprised the town of Reading. A few days after, the Danes were defeated with great slaughter at Ashbury in Berkshire, by Ethelred and his younger brother Alfred. The famous white horse still on the hill overlooking the locality of the battle, is said to have been made to commemorate this victory. Fourteen days after, the Danes collected strength sufficient to defeat the king of Wessex at Basing; and again within two months at Merton, probably near Reading. In this battle Ethelred received a wound, of which he died soon after, 871.

44. *Alfred the Great*, 871.—ALFRED was now called to the throne of Wessex, although some of the children of his elder brother were alive. He had given very early indications of those great virtues which afterwards gave splendour to his reign, and was anointed as a king by Pope Leo IV., when he was sent to Rome for his education by his father, in the fifth year of his age. On his return, he became every day more the object of his father's fond affections; but his education had been so much neglected that he had attained the age of twelve before he was even acquainted with the lowest elements of literature. On hearing some Saxon poems read, which recounted the praise of heroes, his mind was roused, not only to obtain a similitude of glory, but also to be able to transmit that glory to posterity. Encouraged by queen Judith, his step-mother, and assisted by a penetrating genius, he soon learned to read those compositions, and proceeded from thence to a knowledge of Latin authors, who directed his taste and regulated his ambition.

45. *Danes invade Wessex*.—Within a month after Alfred's accession, he was obliged to oppose the Danes, who had seized Wilton, and were ravaging the country round. He fell upon them with a few troops, and fought a disastrous battle. This made the ninth great battle which had been fought this year in Wessex. This pertinacious courage and activity induced the enemy to propose terms of peace, which Alfred did not think proper to refuse, 871. They, by this treaty, agreed to leave his kingdom of Wessex; which they hardly touched for the nine succeeding years. They then marched to Lon-

44. Who succeeded Ethelred? What did the Pope do to him? What led him to learn to read?

45. What had Alfred to do on his accession? Did he succeed? What followed?



don, and there wintered; and next year overran Mercia, destroying the celebrated monastery at Repton in Derbyshire, the sacred mausoleum of all the Mercian kings, 874. Two years after, the Danes again began hostilities against Wessex. After several disasters, Alfred made a *second* peace, by which they engaged to depart from Wessex, 877; but, instead of complying with their engagements, they only removed from one place to another, burning and destroying wherever they went.

46. *Alfred a Fugitive*, 878.—“Alfred thus opposed to an enemy whom no stationary force could resist nor treaties bind, found himself unable to repel the efforts of those ravagers, who invaded him from all quarters. New swarms of the enemy arrived every year upon the coast, and fresh invasions were still projected. Some of his subjects, therefore, left their country and retired into Wales, or fled to the continent; others submitted to the conquerors, and purchased their lives by their freedom. In this universal defection Alfred vainly attempted to remind them of the duty they owed their country and their king; but, finding his remonstrances ineffectual, he was obliged to give way to the wretched necessity of the times. Accordingly, relinquishing the ensigns of his dignity, and dismissing his servants, he dressed himself in the habit of a peasant, and lived for some time in the house of a cowherd named Denulf, who had been entrusted with the care of his cattle. In this manner, though abandoned by his subjects, and fearing an enemy in every quarter, still he resolved to continue in his country to catch the slightest occasion for bringing it relief. In his solitary retreat in Athelney\*, or fenny islet, in the county of Somerset, at the confluence of the rivers Parret and Thone, he amused himself with music, and supported his humble lot with the hopes of better fortune. It is said, that one day, when busily employed in fitting his bow and arrows, being commanded by the cowherd's wife, who was ignorant of his quality, to take care of some cakes which were baking by the fire, he happened to let them burn, on which she severely upbraided him for neglect. Previous to his retirement, Alfred had concerted measures for assembling a few trusty friends, whenever an

46. What was Alfred at last obliged to do? How did he conduct himself when a fugitive?

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\* It is deserving of notice that a gold and enamel ornament, lost by Alfred at Athelney, was found there, entire and undefaced, in the seventeenth century. It is now preserved at Oxford; and the inscription which surrounds it, ‘*Alfred het meh gewircan*,’ ‘*Alfred caused me to be (worked) made*,’—affords the most authentic testimony of its origin.



opportunity should offer of annoying the enemy, who were now in possession of the whole country. This chosen band, still faithful to their monarch, took shelter in the forests and marshes of Somerset, and from thence made occasional irruptions upon straggling parties of the enemy. Their success in this rapacious and dreary method of living encouraged many to join their society, till at length sufficiently augmented, they repaired to their monarch, who had by that time been reduced by famine to the last extremity."

47. *Ubba's Death—Raven Standard captured, 878.*—At this time Ubba, the only survivor of the brothers Regnar, had carried terror over the whole land, and had been ravaging South Wales, where he had wintered. On his return with twenty-three ships to the English Channel, "the only place where he found resistance was the castle of Kenwith, into which Odun earl of Devon had retired with a small body of troops. This gallant soldier, finding himself unable to sustain the siege, and knowing the danger of surrendering to a perfidious enemy, was resolved, by one desperate effort, to sally out and force his way through the besiegers, sword in hand. The proposal was embraced by all his followers; while the Danes, secure in their numbers, and in their contempt of the enemy, were routed with great slaughter, and Ubba was slain." The victors obtained an immense booty; among which was their famous magical standard the Reafan (Raven), a more fatal disaster to the superstitious Danes than even Ubba's death and their ignominious defeat.

48. *Alfred Reappears.*—Earl Odun's victory once more restored courage to the dispirited Saxons; and Alfred, taking advantage of their favourable disposition, prepared to animate them to a vigorous exertion of their superiority. He soon, therefore, apprized them of the place of his retreat, and instructed them to be ready at call with all their strength. But still none was found who would undertake to give intelligence of the forces and posture of the enemy. Not knowing, therefore, a person in whom he could confide, he undertook this dangerous task himself. In the simple dress of a shepherd, with his harp in his hand, he entered the Danish camp, tried all his musical arts to please, and was so much admired, that he was brought even into the presence of Guthrum, the Danish prince, with whom he remained some days. He there remarked the supine security of the Danes,

47. Who was Ubba? What befell him? What in particular did Odun capture?

48. What did Alfred do after Odun's victory? How did he obtain information respecting the Danish army in his neighbourhood?



their contempt of the English, their negligence in foraging and plundering, and their dissolute wasting of such ill-gotten booty. Having made his observations, he returned to his retreat; and, detaching proper emissaries to his partisans in the adjacent districts of Somerset, Wilts, and Hants, appointed them to meet him in arms in the forest of Selwood, between Frome and Burham, which they gladly obeyed.

49. *Victory of Ethandune*.—Two days were passed in these arrivals, and in the necessary arrangements. On the third day Alfred led his followers towards the enemy, and the next morning advanced rapidly to a spot called Ethandune, probably Eddindin near Westbury, in front of the enemy. The Danes, surprised to behold an army of English, whom they considered as totally subdued, made but a faint resistance. Notwithstanding the superiority of their numbers, they were routed with great slaughter; and though such as escaped fled for refuge into a fortified camp in the neighbourhood, being unprovided for a siege, in less than a fortnight they were compelled to accept the terms which Alfred offered. By his permission, those who did not choose to embrace Christianity, embarked for Flanders under the command of one of their generals, called Hastings. Guthrum, their prince, became a convert, with thirty of his nobles, and the king himself answered for him at the font. To these were ceded an extensive territory—namely, from the mouth of the Lea to its source near Hertford, thence to Bedford, and then along the Ouse to Watling Street or the great Roman road; and this territory, together with Northumbria already divided among the followers of Halfden, thereafter became known by the name of the *Danelage*\*, or the country under Dane-law.

50. *Alfred Paramount south of the Humber, 878*.—On the defeat of the Danes, the sovereignty of Mercia fell under the power of Alfred, which made him paramount south of the Humber. He did not however avowedly incorporate it with Wessex. He abolished its regal honours, and constituted his subsequent son-in-law Ethelred as its military commander. His reign from his restoration was wise and prosperous. He rebuilt the cities and castles which had

48. What did he then do?

49. What was the result of the battle of Ethandune?

50. What is meant by "paramount?" State what Alfred did after his restoration to provide against future invasions.

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\* The *Danelage* then extended along the eastern coast from the Thames to the Tweed: comprising the greater part of the present counties of Hertford, Bedford, Huntingdon, Rutland, Notts, and York; with the whole of Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincoln, Durham, and Northumberland.



been destroyed, and constructed many new fortifications. He re-divided the country into hundreds, and these into ten parts or tithings; each district becoming bound to provide for its internal peace, and to furnish its quota of men to constitute the *militia* for the general defence of the country. For the protection of the coasts he built war-ships, which were the germ of the British navy. By these defensive precautions he gave the country a new face, and not only kept in awe the Northmen settled in it, but prepared it for that defensive war, which the means and disposition of the invaders could never successfully stand.

51. *Re-invasion under Hastings the Dane, 893.*—These preparations were scarcely completed, when their efficiency was put to the test. In 893, the Northmen again landed from 250 ships near Romney Marsh, and encamped at Appeldore in Kent. Simultaneously with these movements, the veteran leader-in-chief Hastings sailed up the Thames and Medway with another fleet of eighty ships, took Milton and there threw up intrenchments. Their past reverses had made them extremely cautious, and for nearly a whole year they employed themselves in fortifying their positions, and in scouring the country with the cavalry brought over from Belgium and France. Other squadrons poured along the coasts to distract attention and create alarm; and to complete the national confusion the Danes settled in the Danelage (see § 49), from the Tweed to the Thames, took up arms and joined their brethren under Hastings. By calling out one portion of the new militia at a time, Alfred was enabled to keep a military force constantly in arms. This novelty disconcerted Hastings and his impetuous followers. He however protracted the war for more than three years, shifting the scene of his operations from one place to another with remarkable rapidity. The discomfiture of this Scandinavian Hannibal forms the most brilliant incident in the life of Alfred. From this time, 897, Alfred diligently employed the remaining years of his life in cultivating the arts of peace, and in repairing the damages which the kingdom had sustained by war. For these, rather than his military services, he was called “The Great.” He died in 901, at the age of fifty-two.

52. *Character of Alfred.*—“Alfred drew up a body of laws with the concurrence of his witenagemot or parliament, which has been called his Dom-boc. His care for the

51. Were they effective? What is said of Hastings the Dane? How did Alfred oppose the Danes? When did Alfred die? Why was he called “the Great?”



encouragement of learning did not a little tend to improve the morals and restrain the barbarous habits of the people. When he came to the throne, he found the English sunk into the grossest ignorance and barbarism, proceeding from the continued disorders of the government, and from the ravages of the Danes. He himself complains, that, on his accession, he knew not one person south of the Thames, who could so much as interpret the Latin service. To remedy this deficiency, he invited to his court the learned monks Grimbald from France, Johannes Erigena (the Irishman), and Asser from Wales; he founded, or at least re-established, the university of Oxford, and endowed it with many privileges; and he gave, in his own example, the strongest incentives to study. He usually divided his time into three equal portions; one was given to sleep, and the refectio of his body, diet, and exercise; another to the dispatch of business; and the third to study and devotion. He made a considerable progress in the different studies of grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, architecture, and geometry. He was an excellent historian; he understood music; he was acknowledged to be the best Saxon poet of the age, and left many works behind him, some of which remain to this day. To give a character to this prince, would only be to sum up those qualities which constitute perfection. Even virtues seemingly opposite were happily blended in his disposition; persevering, yet flexible; moderate, yet enterprising; just, yet merciful; stern in command, yet gentle in conversation. Nature, also, as if desirous that such admirable qualities of mind should be set off to the greatest advantage, had bestowed on him all bodily accomplishments, vigour, dignity, and an engaging open countenance."

53. *Edward the Elder*, 901.—Upon the death of Alfred, the son of his elder brother Ethelbald was again passed over, and his son EDWARD, surnamed *the Elder*, was elected King by the witenagemot, 901. This proves that the succession to the throne of Wessex was still not hereditary. Edward repressed the incursions of the Danes, built many fortresses which afterwards became towns, and first took the title of *Rex Anglorum* (King of the Angles).

54. *Athelstan*, 924.—On his death in 924, the sceptre was given to ATHELSTAN, "his natural son, the illegitimacy of his birth not being then deemed a sufficient obstacle to his

52. What were the leading features of Alfred's character?

53. Who succeeded Alfred? What does that prove? What was done in his reign?

54. Who was Althelstan?



inheriting the crown." This sovereign exercised his power with still more effect than his father. He wrested Northumbria from the Danes, and extended his authority over Cumberland, 925. In the year 934, he defeated the reinforced Danes under Anlaf at Brunnaburgh (beyond the Tyne). This victory was so decisive that his supremacy was everywhere acknowledged. He formed *the first political connection with France*, whose sovereign Louis IV. had received his protection; and he first took the title of *King of all Britain*, fame regarding him as the founder of the English monarchy.

55. *Edmund I.—Edred*, 941–955.—Having left no children, Athelstan was succeeded by his half-brother EDMUND, who, "like his predecessors, met with disturbances from the Northumbrians and the Danes, on his accession to the throne; but his activity partly defeated their attempts. The resentment this monarch bore to men of an abandoned way of living was the cause of his death. He was killed by Leolff, a robber, at a feast on St. Augustine's day, where this villain had the audacity to intrude into the king's presence, 946. His brother, EDRED, was appointed to succeed; and, like his predecessors, this monarch found himself at the head of a rebellious and refractory people. The most remarkable circumstance of Edred's short reign was the final subjugation of Northumbria, which had been so often conquered before. Edred implicitly submitted to the directions of Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, both in church and state; and the kingdom was in a fair way of being turned into a papal province by this zealous ecclesiastic, who expelled all the married clergy from canonries and prebendaries, and attempted to enforce clerical celibacy; but Dunstan was checked in the midst of his career by the death of the king, who died of a quinsy in the tenth year of his reign," 955.

56. *Edwin or Edwy*, 955.—EDWIN, usually called Edwy, the eldest son of Edmund *the Elder*, succeeded his uncle Edred at the age of sixteen, 955. "He was a prince of great personal accomplishments, and of a martial disposition. But he was now come to the government of a kingdom in which he had an enemy to contend with, against whom all military virtues could be of little avail. Abbot Dunstan, who had governed during the former reign, resolved to remit nothing of his authority in this; and Edwy, immediately

54. What were the events of his reign? What title did he take?

55. What led to Edmund's death? Who killed him? Who succeeded him? Who were Edgar's advisers? What clerical changes were then attempted?

56. What was the policy of Edwy?



upon his accession, found himself involved in a quarrel with the monks; whose rage neither his accomplishments nor his virtues could mitigate. Among other instances of their cruelty, the following is recorded. There was a lady of the royal blood, named Elgiva, whose beauty had made a strong impression upon the young monarch's heart. He had even ventured to marry her, contrary to the advice of his counselors, as she was within the degrees of affinity prohibited by the canon law. On the day of his coronation, while his nobility were giving a loose to the more noisy pleasures of wine and festivity in the great hall, Edwy retired to his wife's apartment, where, in company with her mother Ethelgiva, he enjoyed the more pleasing satisfaction of her conversation. Abbot Dunstan no sooner perceived his absence, than, conjecturing the reason, he rushed furiously into the apartment, and upbraiding him with all the bitterness of ecclesiastical rancour, dragged his sovereign by main force off his seat, and led him to the hall; and thus, shamed and disgraced, was Edwy compelled to reappear before his assembled nobility. The insulted youth however was still a king: he could avenge himself upon the man by whom he had been thus outraged. Dunstan, it seems, was not without his enemies; for the king was advised to punish this insult, by bringing him to account for the money with which he had been intrusted during the last reign. This account the haughty monk refused to give in; wherefore he was deprived of all the ecclesiastical and civil emoluments of which he had been in possession, and banished the kingdom. His exile only served to increase the reputation of his sanctity with the people: among the rest, Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, was so far transported with the spirit of party, that he pronounced a divorce between Edwy and Elgiva. The king was unable to resist the indignation of the church, and consented to surrender his beautiful wife to its fury. Accordingly, Odo sent into the palace a party of soldiers, who seized the queen, and, by his orders, branded her on the face with a red-hot iron. Not contented with this cruel vengeance, they carried her by force into Ireland, and there commanded her to remain in perpetual exile. This injunction however was too distressing for that faithful woman to comply with; for being cured of her wound, and having obliterated the marks which had been made to deface her beauty, she once more ventured to return to the king, whom she still regarded as her husband. But

56. Whom did he marry? What happened at his coronation banquet? How was it resented? What further occurred till the death of Edwy?



misfortune continued to pursue her. She was taken prisoner by a party whom the archbishop had appointed to observe her conduct, and was put to death in the most cruel manner; the sinews of her legs being cut, and her body mangled, she was thus left to expire in the most cruel agony. In the meantime, a secret revolt against Edwy became almost general; and Dunstan put himself at the head of the party. The malcontents at last proceeded to open rebellion; and, having placed Edgar, the king's younger brother, a boy of about thirteen years of age, at their head, they soon put him in possession of all the northern parts of the kingdom. Edwy's power, and the number of his adherents, every day declining, he was at last obliged to consent to a partition of the kingdom; but his death, which happened soon after, freed his enemies from all further inquietude, and gave Edgar peaceable possession of the government," 959.

57. *Edgar*, 959.—EDGAR, "having been placed on the throne by the influence of the monks, affected to be entirely guided by their directions in all his succeeding transactions." He promoted Dunstan to the sees of Worcester and London, which he held conjointly, and soon afterwards to the primacy of Canterbury. *Edgar the Pacific*, as he was called, gave a greater extent and majesty to the Anglo-Saxon dominion than any previous Bretwalda. He reigned sixteen years, and died in his thirty-third year (975), leaving two sons of the respective ages of thirteen and seven—Edward by his first queen Elfreda the Fair; and Ethelred by his second, Elfrida widow of Ethelbald, earl of the East-Angles.

58. *Elfreda the Fair*.—There is an incident mentioned of this monarch, which is of too singular a nature to be omitted—his amour with Elfreda the Fair. "Edgar had long heard of the beauty of a young lady, whose name was Elfreda, daughter to Ordmer earl of Devonshire; but unwilling to credit common fame in this particular, he sent Ethelwald, his favourite friend, to see, and inform him, if Elfreda was indeed that incomparable woman report had described her. Ethelwald arriving at the earl's, had no sooner cast his eyes upon that nobleman's daughter, than he became desperately enamoured of her himself. Such was the violence of his passion, that, forgetting his master's intentions, he solicited only his own interests, and demanded for himself the beautiful Elfreda, from her father, in marriage. The favourite of a king was not likely to find a refusal; the earl gave his

57. Did Edgar favour Dunstan? What was the character of his reign?

58. What tale is related of Edgar? What are its leading particulars?



consent, and the nuptials were performed in private. Upon his return to court, which was shortly after, he assured the king that her riches alone, and her high quality, had been the cause of her fame, and he appeared amazed how the world could talk so much, and so unjustly, of her charms. The king was satisfied, and no longer felt any curiosity; while Ethelwald secretly triumphed in his address. When he had, by this deceit, weaned the king from his purpose, he took an opportunity, after some time, of turning the conversation on Elfleda, representing, that though the fortune of the earl of Devonshire's daughter would be a trifle to a king, yet it would be an immense acquisition to a needy subject. He therefore humbly entreated permission to pay his addresses to her, as she was the richest heiress in the kingdom. A request so seemingly reasonable was readily complied with; Ethelwald returned to his wife, and their nuptials were solemnized in public. His greatest care however was employed in keeping her from court; and he took every precaution to prevent her from appearing before a king so susceptible of love, while she was so capable of inspiring that passion. But it was impossible to keep his treachery long concealed. Edgar was soon informed of the whole transaction; but dissembling his resentment, he took occasion to visit that part of the country where this miracle of beauty was detained, accompanied by Ethelwald, who reluctantly attended him thither. Upon coming near the lady's habitation, he told him he had a curiosity to see his wife, of whom he had formerly heard so much, and desired to be introduced as his acquaintance. Ethelwald, thunderstruck at the proposal, did all in his power, but in vain, to dissuade him. All he could obtain, was permission to go before, on pretence of preparing for the king's reception. On his arrival, he fell at his wife's feet, confessing what he had done to be possessed of her charms, and conjuring her to conceal, as much as possible, her beauty from the king, who was but too susceptible of its power. Elfleda, little obliged to him for a passion that had deprived her of a crown, promised compliance; but, prompted either by vanity or revenge, adorned her person with the most exquisite art, and called up all her beauty on the occasion. The event answered her expectations; the king no sooner saw, than he loved her, and was instantly resolved to obtain her. The better to effect his intentions, he concealed his passion from the husband, and took leave with a seeming indifference; but his revenge was not the less certain and fatal. Ethelwald was some time after sent into Northumberland, upon pretence of urgent affairs, and was found murdered in a



wood by the way. Some say he was stabbed by the king's own hand; some, that he only commanded the assassination: however this be, Elfreda was invited soon after to court, by the king's own order, and their nuptials were performed with the usual solemnity," 970.

59. *Edward II. the Martyr*, 975.—EDWARD succeeded his father, though a powerful faction had been formed against him, headed by his step-mother Elfrida, who desired to place her son Ethelred on the throne. To accomplish her object this ambitious woman, four years afterwards, caused his assassination. "Hunting one day near Corfe Castle, where his step-mother resided, Edward thought it his duty to pay her a visit, although unattended by any of his retinue. When he rode up to the door, he desired some liquor to be brought to him as he was thirsty; and while he was yet holding the cup to his lips, one of Elfrida's domestics, instructed for that purpose, stabbed him in the back. The king, finding himself wounded, put spurs to his horse; but, fainting with the loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, and his foot sticking in the stirrup, he was dragged along by his horse till he died." His attendants followed the track of his blood, until they found the corpse of "the Martyr." His body was burned, and the ashes were interred at Wareham in Dorsetshire, 978.

60. *Ethelred II. the Unready*, 978. — Edward's half-brother ETHELRED was made king when only ten years old: his reign was long and unfortunate. He never sympathised with his people, and consequently incurred their dislike. His appellation of *the Unready* was early given to him, and was probably suggested by Dunstan's ill-natured remark at his baptism, "that the babe would prove a man of nought." As the monk never concealed his dislike to his mother, who favoured his opponents, his prophecy was, like many others, excellently well calculated to insure its own fulfilment. By inducing the people to attribute their misfortunes to the government, it weakened their power of resistance so long as Ethelred was upon the throne. Dunstan just lived to see the beginning of the wretchedness which he desired might fall upon his countrymen, because he hated their king.

61. *Danish Incursions*, 980.—The Danes had discontinued their incursions, since the reign of Athelstan; but the inexperience of Ethelred appeared to give a favourable opportunity

59. Which of Edgar's sons succeeded him? Why is he called the Martyr? How long did he reign? What was done with his body?

60. What is said of Ethelred's reign? What contemptuous name was given to him? Why?



for renewing their depredations; and, accordingly, they landed in the third year of his reign on several parts of the coast, spreading their usual terror and devastation. At first the Danes did not act in combination with each other; and their fleets, or rather their squadrons, were frequently very small, their crews probably not exceeding 600 men. Consequently any reasonable degree of vigour would have been sufficient to repel the enemy; but at this period, when unanimity was requisite, great dissension prevailed. In 993, Ethelred assembled the witenagemot, which was then an assembly composed of few others than priests and courtiers. Conforming their opinions to the known aversion of the king to any bold and energetic measure, they recommended that the Danes should be offered a sum of money equivalent to the profit which they expected to make by their invasion of England. The marauders gladly accepted this offer; and received 10,000 pounds weight of silver on condition of quitting England. They then sailed away; but soon returned in greater numbers to obtain a larger sum. This time they demanded 24,000 pounds weight of silver, which Ethelred again paid to them, being himself satisfied with their promises and with the conversion of a Danish chief, who publicly received the rite of baptism in the cathedral of Winchester; upon which, one of his companions said in derision, that he had himself already received it at least twenty times.

62. *Massacre of the Danes, 1003.*—The insolence and the excesses of the Danes, exciting the resentments of the native population to the highest pitch of fury, shortly brought about those acts of national vengeance, which it is equally difficult to condemn or to justify, because a noble patriotism and a disdain of oppression are intermixed with atrocious passions. A great conspiracy was entered into, under the eyes, and with the connivance of the magistrates and the royal officers, against the Danes of the recent invasion, of whom both men, women, and children were indiscriminately assailed in their several places of abode, and were all slaughtered on an appointed day. This day was the feast or mass-day (the 13th of November) of St. Brice in 1002, immediately following Ethelred's marriage with the Lady Emma, the daughter of Richard I., the third duke of Normandy. It did not extend to the northern and eastern provinces of the

61. What of the Danes after the accession of Ethelred? How did he act?

62. What act of barbarity did he sanction? When was it perpetrated?



kingdom, wherein the old established Danes, who were tradespeople and agriculturists, formed the greater part of the population; but the entire body of the new conquerors, with the exception of a very small number, perished, as did also one of the king of Denmark's sisters.

63. *Sweyn's Armament—The Raven Standard.*—While the English were yet congratulating each other upon their late deliverance from an inveterate enemy, King Sweyn of Denmark, who had been informed of their treacherous cruelties, assembled an army much more numerous than the first: in which, according to the ancient narratives, there was neither a slave, nor a freed man, nor an old man; but each combatant was free, the son of a freeman, and in the vigour of his age. This army embarked in vessels having high decks, each bearing a distinctive emblem which designated the commander. Some had at their prows, figures of lions, bulls, dolphins, or men, of gilt copper; at the mast-heads of others were birds extending their wings and turning with the wind: the sides of the ships were painted of different colours, and shields of polished steel were hung upon them in rows. The king's ship had the form of a serpent, its head advancing to the prow, and its tail coiled at the stern; hence it was called *the Great Dragon*. At their disembarkation on the English coast, the Danes formed into battalions and unfurled a mysterious standard which they denominated the Reafan or Raven. It was a banner of white silk, in the centre of which was embroidered a raven, with open beak and extended wings; three of King Sweyn's sisters had embroidered it in a night, accompanying their labour with magic incantations and gesticulations. This banner, which, agreeably to the superstitious notions of the Scandinavians, was a sure pledge of victory, increased the ardour and the confidence of the fresh invaders (1004).

64. *Danes Victorious—Sweyn King of England, 1013.*—Wherever the Danes landed, says an eminent historian, they gaily partook of the repasts which were unwillingly prepared for them; and barbarously slew the host and burned his house on their departure. They everywhere carried off the horses; and becoming cavaliers, according to the tactics of their predecessors, they marched rapidly across the country, suddenly presenting themselves when they were thought to be at a distance, and surprising the fortified castles and cities. In a short space of time they had conquered all the southern pro-

63. What did it lead to? What are the particulars of Sweyn's armament? What was the Reafan?

64. How was the massacre of the Danes avenged?



vinces, from the river Humber to the bay of Southampton. King Ethelred, who was always *unready* for battle, could devise no other means to obtain the forbearance of the enemy than that of purchasing occasional truces, a temporising policy which obliged him to oppress his people with more and more burthensome imposts. At last, these exactions exhausted the patience of the people, who had made him king for their defence, and led them to prefer resigning themselves at once, than to await in misery the moment of slavery that could not be averted. Several of the central counties voluntarily surrendered to the Danes; Oxford and Winchester shortly afterwards opened their gates; and Sweyn, advancing into the western counties as far as the Bristol channel, assumed the title of *King of all England* without any opposition, 1013. Ethelred was now obliged to fly to the court of Normandy (§. 62), and the whole country, after a nine years' struggle, then came under the power of his victorious rival. But, as Sweyn suddenly died the same year, there is reason for attributing his death to some burst of patriotic indignation.

65. *Ethelred recalled*.—The Danish soldiers quartered in the towns, or stationed in the ships at the mouth of the rivers, accepted Canute or Knut, the son of Sweyn, for their king; but the English “Heah Witnd,” or great counsellors, corresponding to our privy counsellors, invited Ethelred to resume the throne,—*provided that he would govern them better than he did before*. In answer to this, Ethelred sent over from Normandy his natural son Edmund, charging him to salute in his name the whole English nation, and to make public adjuration in his name, that the king would in future faithfully fulfil all the duties of his high office, amend whatever was displeasing, and consign to oblivion all which the people had done or said against himself. The amity thus sworn to between the nation and king, was confirmed on either side by pledges mutually given.

66. *First Germ of Constitutional Government, 1015*.—This compact was confirmed by the legislature; and it was “given for doom” or law, that all Danish kings should from henceforth be outlaws in England. In this remarkable compact may be seen *the germ of constitutional government*—of Magna Charta, and of all subsequent compacts between the king and people of England.

67. *Ethelred restored, 1015*.—Ethelred returned in Lent,

64. What did Ethelred? Who was the first Danish king of England? Who succeeded him?

65. On what condition was Ethelred recalled?

66. What is seen in this compact with Ethelred?



and resumed his authority; but it is not exactly known over what extent of territory he reigned; for the Danish garrisons, though driven from some towns, kept possession of many others, including the city of London. Canute, being dissatisfied with the portion assigned to him by the Anglo-Saxons, returned by sea from the north of England to Sandwich, and caused the hostages given to him, to be tortured through anger at his own disappointment. This example of useless cruelty was the signal for a new war, which Ethelred, faithful to his late oath, sustained courageously, amid various successes and reverses, being heroically assisted by his son Edmund. At this crisis the death of Ethelred released England from its greatest enemy, 1016.

68. *Edmund Ironside*, 1016–1017.—At this time of extreme danger, the infant legitimate sons of Ethelred, Edward and Alfred, were passed over; the Anglo-Saxons choosing for their king his natural son EDMUND, surnamed *Ironside*, who had given remarkable proofs of ability and heroism. By his energetic conduct he revived the courage of the English people, retook London, and fought five great battles against the Danes with unvarying valour, but with various success. The Danish and English armies, equally harassed by these murderous conflicts, obliged their kings to come to a compromise, and to divide the kingdom between them. Canute reserved to himself the northern counties, while the southern were left to Edmund; but this prince being murdered at Oxford about a month after by his two chamberlains, Canute was left in peaceable possession of the whole kingdom, 1017.

69. *Canute the Dane, King of England*, 1017.—The Anglo-Saxon parliament, which had shortly before recalled Ethelred and outlawed the Danes for ever, now withdrew with edifying facility all allegiance from the children of Ethelred, and took the oath of fidelity to CANUTE, recognising him as king of all England, 1017. To secure his throne he sent Edmund's sons (Edmund and Edward) to the king of Sweden, requesting him to remove these objects of suspicion; but the noble-minded Swede placed the infants beyond the reach of Canute, under the care of (*Saint*) Stephen, king of Hungary, by whom they were treated with affection and honour. Canute afterwards married Ethelred's Norman

67. What followed on the restoration of Ethelred? How did Ethelred conduct himself?

68. Who was Edmund *Ironside*? What are the particulars of his brief reign? What occasioned his death?

69. How did the Saxon parliament act on the death of Edmund? What did Canute afterwards do?



widow Emma, who bore him a son called Hardicanute, *Canute the Strong*.

70. *Canute's Government*.—King Canute was not one that shed blood for the sake of blood-letting. When he had disposed of all those who gave him fear or umbrage, he stayed his hand, placed the Danes and English upon an equal footing, admitting them alike to offices of trust, and endeavoured to establish friendship between them. He divided England into four governments or great-earldoms—Wessex, Mercia, East-Anglia, and Northumbria, placing each under a viceroy or great-earl, which made a most impolitic alteration in the administration of the country. He paid great attention to the faithful administration of the laws, outlawing even Thurkill great-earl of East-Anglia for non-appearance to the king's writ, and protected the people from the oppression of their lords. On the whole, Canute governed England with more justice than could have been anticipated, considering that he had acquired the crown by force, and had before exercised despotic authority over the great body of his Scandinavian subjects.

71 *Character of Canute*.—Time however diminished the necessity for severity; age softened his temper; devotion purified his heart. He journeyed as a pilgrim to Rome; and on his return he issued a solemn address to the English people, professing repentance for the violence of his youth, and promising to govern according to the dictates of mercy and justice. When Canute was in the plenitude of his power, "the piety of the latter part of his life and the resolute valour of the former, were topics that filled the mouths of his courtiers with flattery and praise. They even affected to think his power uncontrollable, and that all things would be obedient to his command. Canute, sensible of their adulation, is said to have taken the following method to reprove them:—He ordered his chair to be set on the sea-shore while the tide was coming in, and commanded the sea to retire. 'Thou art under my dominion,' cried he; 'the land upon which I sit is mine; I charge thee therefore to approach no farther, nor dare to wet the feet of thy sovereign.' He feigned to sit some time in expectation of submission, till the waves began to surround him, then turning to his courtiers, he observed that the titles of Lord and Master belonged only to Him whom both earth and seas were ready to obey. Thus feared and

70. What is said of Canute's government? What proof is given of his love of justice?

71. What was Canute's character towards the close of life? How did he reprove his flatterers?



respected, he lived many years, honoured with the surname of Great for his power, but deserving it still more for his virtues. He died at Shaftsbury, in the nineteenth year of his reign, and was buried at Winchester, leaving behind him three sons, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute," 1036. Sweyn was installed king of Norway in the lifetime of his father; to Hardicanute was left the throne of Denmark; and Harold succeeded to the crown of England.

72. *The rise of Godwin Earl of Wessex*, 1017.—The rise of the Saxon churl Godwin, who became the great-earl of Wessex, is one of the most remarkable episodes in Anglo-Saxon history. It is thus narrated by the historian Thierry:—"After one of those great battles fought between Edmund *Ironsides* and Canute in which the Danes were defeated, one of their chiefs named Ulf, being separated from his men in the rout and flying for his life, struck into a wood of which he was unacquainted with the paths. After walking in vain throughout the night, he met at daybreak a young peasant driving a herd of oxen. Ulf saluted him and asked his name. 'I am named Godwin, son of Ulfnoth,' answered the churl, 'and thou, if I mistake not, art of the Danish army.' The Dane being thus obliged to confess the truth, prayed the young man to tell him how far he might still be from their vessels stationed in the Severn or in the neighbouring rivers, and by what road it would be possible for him to reach them. 'Foolish indeed,' replied Godwin, 'is the Dane who expects his safety from a Saxon.' Ulf intreated the Saxon neat-herd to leave his cattle and show him the way, making the promises most likely to prevail over a poor and simple man. 'The way is long,' replied the youth, 'and it would be dangerous for me to conduct you thither. The peasants, encouraged by our victory of yesterday, are armed throughout the country, and would show no mercy either to thee or thy guide.' The chief drew a gold ring from his finger, and presented it to the shepherd, who took it, contemplated it with much earnestness, and after an instant's reflection returned it, saying, 'I will take nothing from thee, but I will try to conduct thee.' He took him to his father's hut; and when night came, and they were on the point of departing, the old peasant said to the Dane, 'Know that it is my only son who trusts himself to thy honour; there will be no safety for him among his countrymen when he has served thee as a guide; present him therefore to thy king, that he

71. Why was Canute called 'the Great?' When did he die? How did he apportion his dominions?

72. Relate the story of Earl Godwin.



may receive him into his service.' Ulf promised to do much more for Godwin; and he kept his word: on their arrival at the Danish camp, he made the peasant's son sit in his own tent, on a seat as elevated as his own, and treated him as his own son. He obtained for him a military command from King Canute; and at length the Saxon neat-herd rose to the rank of Danish governor of a province in England. His name soon after makes a great figure among the most illustrious personages of this history; and it may consequently be a source of pleasure to call to mind the lowliness of his origin and the singularity of his fortunes."

73. *Harold I. the Dane*, 1035.—The nomination of HAROLD as king of the Anglo-Saxon realms, was much against the inclination of Godwin great-earl of Wessex. The English wished to choose either one of the sons of Ethelred, or Hardicanute the son of Emma, who was at least connected with the old line, while all the Danes and the citizens of London espoused the cause of Harold; but in the great council or witenagemot held at Oxford, his party could only obtain, in consequence of the opposition of Earl Godwin, his recognition as king of Mercia and Northumbria. Godwin and the nobles of Wessex resisted his becoming king of all England as long as they could, and then swore allegiance to Harold. On the bishops refusing to crown him, Harold abjured Christianity and dispensed with the formality.

74. *Character of Harold I.* — He was distinguished chiefly by his immoralities and the bitterness with which he persecuted the family of Ethelred. His name has also come down branded by one of the foulest acts recorded in history. He caused forged letters to be addressed to the exiled princes, Edward and Alfred, in the name of their mother Emma, urging one of them at least to return to England for the purpose of recovering the kingdom from the tyrant. Alfred obeyed the summons, and with a select body of followers proceeded from Belgium to England, where he was met by Earl Godwin who undertook to conduct him to Queen Emma. Godwin led them to Guilford and there left them, promising to wait on Alfred next morning; but during the night the whole party were surprised and taken by Harold's forces. There were in all about 600. Every tenth man received his liberty; while the rest were cruelly tortured or put to death. Alfred himself was conducted on horseback to Ely, with his legs

73. Who opposed the recognition of Harold the Dane as king of England? Did he succeed?

74. What is said of the character of Harold? What base act did he contrive and perpetrate? Who appears to have participated in it?



tied under the horse's belly. When he arrived there his eyes were put out, and he soon after expired through the violence of his suffering. But the power to violate the laws of honour and humanity, as well as the belief of his subjects, were not long continued to Harold, who died unlamented in the fifth year of his reign, and was buried at Westminster, 1040.

75. *Hardicanute the Dane*, 1040.—Harold was succeeded by his half-brother HARDICANUTE, whose title was readily acknowledged both by the Danes and the English; and upon his arrival from the continent, he was received with the most extravagant demonstrations of joy. He sent to Normandy for his half-brother Edward, the son of Ethelred, and his mother Queen Emma, both of whom he treated with great kindness; he also affected great sorrow for the murder of his half-brother Alfred, and caused the body of Harold to be disinterred and cast into the Thames, from which it was taken by some Danish fishermen, who buried it in the Danes' cemetery of Saint Clement, "without Temple Bar, at London." Earl Godwin appeased his wrath by the gift of a ship, splendidly adorned and manned by eighty gentlemen, all armed and apparelled with extraordinary magnificence; the chief men and principal thanes (§. 105) of England, who were not implicated in the death of Alfred. It seems to be admitted that Earl Godwin had concurred in the murder; but the commands of his sovereign were probably thought sufficient to absolve him of all legal, as well as of all moral responsibility.

76. *Character of Hardicanute*.—The death of Hardicanute is singularly characteristic, both of the man and of the age. During the marriage banquet of 'Towell the Proud,' a powerful Dane, with the daughter of an English thane, Hardicanute dropped speechless upon the ground, and expired a few days after, 1042. In general Hardicanute showed, towards the subdued people, less of cruelty than of avarice; his avidity surpassed even that of the piratical adventurers who were his forefathers. He oppressed England with tributes; and his tax-gatherers more than once fell victims to the hatred and despair which they excited. Thus the spirit of independence, which the conquerors denominated revolt, gradually revived among the descendants of the Saxons and the Angles, nor were there wanting sufferings and insults to awaken their regret for the loss of liberty. Hardicanute was not the sole oppressor of the natives; he was merely the head of the

75. Who were the father and mother of Hardicanute? What were his first acts after his accession to the throne?

76. What is illustrated in the character of Hardicanute?



dominant race, each of whom aided in arbitrary exactions, paying no taxes themselves, and receiving sometimes eight, sometimes twenty marks of silver per man.

77. *Edward the Confessor*, 1042.—Harold and Hardicanute having died childless, before the Danes could assemble for the election of a new king, an insurrection broke out under a Saxon chief named Hown, the exploits of whose army are as little known as the name of its commander are obscure. But this time great-earl Godwin, and his son Harold, raised the standard for the pure independence of their country against every Dane, king or pretender, chief or soldier. The Danes were rapidly driven northward, and chased from town to town, until they embarked for their native countries. In the moment of deliverance, the whole care of public affairs was confided to the son of Ulfnoth the neat-herd, who completed his singular fortune by rescuing his country from the Danes, which he had commenced by saving a Dane from the hands of his countrymen. The great-earl, had he wished it, might have procured himself to be made king of England; but he chose to promote the election of EDWARD, the only surviving son of Ethelred and his Norman queen Emma, the prince whose brother (§. 73) he was once accused of having betrayed and brought to an untimely end. Pursuant to the advice of the great-earl of Wessex, a witenagemot held at Gillingham, decided that Edward should be invited from Normandy, and be made king *on condition of his bringing with him only a small number of Normans*. EDWARD was accordingly proclaimed king on his arrival, and was soon after crowned and consecrated in the cathedral of Winchester, being then about forty years of age, 1042. As he was still unmarried, he chose for his queen Edith the daughter of great-earl Godwin, to whom he owed his crown. Previous however to the marriage, Edward informed her that he had made a vow to live continently, but offered on that condition to share his throne with her, which Edith accepted and became his queen in 1044.

78. *Anglo-Saxon Laws re-established*.—The retreat of the Danes, and the annihilation of their domination having awakened the spirit of patriotism, at the same time brought into vigour the national affection for the customs of the Anglo-Saxons. The earnest wish of the people was that these should be restored in their primitive simplicity, disen-

77. What followed on the death of Hardicanute? Who succeeded to the throne? Whom did Edward marry?

78. When the Danes were expelled, what did the English people most desire?



numbered of all that the commixed races had introduced foreign to the land. On these principles men looked back to the times antecedent to the late great invasion of the Danes (§. 64), and the institutions and laws of Ethelred were eagerly sought to be re-established. Those laws were restored as fully as new circumstances admitted; and because the name of Edward was given to them, it became a popular saying that good King Edward had restored the laws of his father Ethelred. Yet, in truth, he was not a legislator; he promulgated no new code; the laws of the Danish kings merely ceased to be in force in his reign. The law of King Canute for raising the annual tribute of *Peter-pence*\* had shared the fate of all the others decreed by the foreign government. From that time the public administration compelled no one to observe it, and Rome now received from England only the offerings and voluntary gifts of individual devotion. The impost resulting from the conquest, which had been occasionally levied, under the name of Dane-geld and afterwards transformed into an annual land-tax, during thirty years for the pay of foreign soldiery and the Danish sailors, was in like manner abolished, not through any gracious protection of his subjects by the new king, but because there were no longer any Danes in authority in England.

79. *Rebellion and Flight of the Godwins*, 1051.—During Edward's exile at the court of the dukes of Normandy, he had formed attachments to many Norman families who had assisted him in misfortune; many of these followed him to England, and were recompensed by receiving estates and honourable employments; the Norman manners were imitated, and the language was adopted at court. This roused the jealousy of the Godwin family, who took every opportunity of insulting and endeavouring to drive them

78. Was Edward a legislator? What taxes were abolished in his reign?

79. Where had Edward been bred? How was he connected with the dukes of Normandy (§. 62)? What predilections had Edward formed? What great error of his gave a pretext for rebellion to Earl Godwin?

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\* *Peter-pence*, in Saxon *Romefech*, or the due of Rome, was a tribute of a penny for every house or family. It is said to have been given to the Pope by King Ina of Wessex, when in pilgrimage to Rome in 720. A like tax was imposed by King Offa of Mercia in 794, not however as a tribute to the Pope, but in sustentation of the English school or college at Rome; and it was called *Peter-pence*, because collected on the day called in the Romish calendar St. Peter ad Vincula, being the first of August. It seems always to have been considered a burden and a scandal by our free-born ancestors; and if it were paid continuously for some years after the time of Ina, it certainly had long been discontinued until re-obtained from Canute when he went as a penitent to Rome.



from the kingdom. Failing however in their attempt, they at length broke out into rebellion, 1051. Three armies assembled from the great-earldoms of Godwin (Kent and the counties along the southern-coast to the land's end), of his son Harold (Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, and Cambridgeshire), and of his son Sweyn (North Devon, Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, and Berks). The king was however prepared with his forces to meet the insurgent earls, and a sanguinary battle seemed inevitable; when Edward, having summoned a council of war, was advised to refer all disputes to the decision of the witenagemot. The day was appointed; but before its arrival the forces of the rebels had so much decreased that Sweyn abandoned them and fled. Godwin and his sons were then ordered to appear and answer the charge of rebellion; and outlawed on failing to surrender themselves. The great-earl Godwin, with his wife and three sons (Sweyn, Tostig, and Gurth), escaped to Flanders, and Harold sought refuge in Ireland. His daughter Queen Edith was involved in the disgrace of her family; her lands were seized, and she was sent to a monastery.

80. *William of Normandy—State of Parties, 1051.*—At the beginning of Godwin's insurrection, the Normans in England solicited the assistance of Duke William of Normandy, who soon after arrived on the coast with a powerful fleet; but tranquillity having been restored, he landed with only his suite, and visited with them the towns and castles through the country. In his journey Duke William might have believed for a moment that he was still in his native territories. The fleet which he found at Dover was commanded by Normans, and at Canterbury some Norman soldiers composed the garrison of its fort; other Normans came to salute him in the dress of captains or prelates. Edward's favourites came to pay their respects to the chief of their native country; and, to use the language of that day, thronged round their natural lord. William appeared in England more like a king than Edward himself; and it was not long before his ambitious mind conceived the hope of becoming so without difficulty at the death of that prince, so much the slave of Norman influence. According however to the testimony of a contemporary, he kept them secret, and never spoke of them even to Edward, believing that things would of themselves take the course most to the advantage of his ambition. Nor did Edward, whether or not he thought of these projects and of his having some day his friend for a successor, converse

79. How did the insurrection terminate?

80. How was Duke William of Normandy received in England?



with him on the subject during his visit, yet he received him with great tenderness, gave him arms, horses, hounds, and falcons, and loaded him with all sorts of presents and assurances of affection. Amid the recollections of the country where he had passed his youth, the king of England suffered himself to forget his own nation; but that nation could not forget itself, and those who still retained their love for it had soon an opportunity of commanding the king's attention.

81. *Godwin invades England—Flight of the Normans.*—In 1052 Godwin sailed from Bruges (in Belgium) with several vessels, and crossed over to the Isle of Wight, where he was joined by his sons Harold and Leofwine, from Ireland. These opened a correspondence with the inhabitants along the southern coast, many of whom gave hostages as a guarantee of their support. All the king's soldiers and all the royal ships in the ports deserted to Godwin. He then sailed up the Thames and landed a body of troops above London-bridge, and sent a respectful message to King Edward asking a reversal of their outlawry. The king refused; but on being deserted by his panic-stricken Normans, he consented to abide by the decision of the English chiefs on both sides. These decided that the king should accept from Godwin and his sons the oath of peace. On the first rumour of this reconciliation the Norman courtiers fled in different directions, some to the Norman castles in the north, others to the west. The Norman archbishop of Canterbury was just able to escape with his life, so highly were the people incensed against him. In his trouble and haste the archbishop left behind his most precious effects; among other things, the *pallium* which he had received from the Roman Pontiff as the ensign of his dignity, 1052.

82. *Godwin restored—Normans outlawed.*—In the witenagemot which soon after assembled, Godwin and his sons justified themselves from every accusation, when the outlawry was reversed and that of the Normans enacted, as being enemies to the public peace and calumniators of the English to their king. The youngest of Godwin's sons, named Ulfnoth, after his grandfather the neat-herd, and one of the sons of Sweyn, were given as hostages to the king. Borne away, even at this moment, by his infatuation for the Normans, the king sent them for safe keeping to Duke William of Normandy. The mild and bene-

81. What happened on Earl Godwin's invasion? How did the Normans act? What of the Norman archbishop of Canterbury?

82. What were the terms of reconciliation between King Edward and the Godwin family?



volent Queen Editha, Godwin's daughter, left her cloister and returned to dwell in the palace. All the members of this popular family resumed their honours, excepting Sweyn, who voluntarily renounced them that he might perform a vow, taken to appease the sting of conscience, of walking barefoot to Jerusalem. He rigorously accomplished this painful pilgrimage; but a speedy death was the consequence.

83. *Death of Godwin*, 1053.—Historians have been unable to appreciate the degree of King Edward's sincerity in his reconciliation with the family of Godwin. It is only known that an apparent friendship existed between them; while Godwin was openly stigmatized at the court of Normandy, as an enemy to his king and the murderer of Prince Alfred. This charge was the most credited, and pursued the Saxon patriot to his death. One day, when seated at Edward's table, he suddenly fainted away, and this accident was the foundation of a romantic and very doubtful story, although repeated by several historians. They relate that one of the attendants, while filling a goblet, made a false step and stumbled, but saved himself from falling by the help of his other leg. "Ah!" said Godwin, laughing, to the king, "see how one brother assists the other." "No doubt," returned Edward, casting a significant glance at the Saxon chief, "the brother has need of his brother, and would to God that mine were still living!" "O King!" exclaimed Godwin, "wherefore is it that the least remembrance of thy brother makes thee look with an evil eye on me? If I contributed, even indirectly, to his misfortune, may the God of heaven cause this mouthful of bread to choke me." Godwin put the bread into his mouth, say the writers who relate this adventure, and was immediately suffocated. The truth is that his death was not so sudden, but that, having fallen from his seat, he was carried out of the apartment by his sons, Tostig and Gurth, and expired five days after, 1053.

84. *State Dissensions*, 1053–1058.—Godwin was succeeded in his territories and his political influence by his eldest son Harold, the husband of King Edward's sister, who then became the most powerful subject in England. Soon after his elevation, the country became distracted by insurrectionary contentions induced by the great-earls. His brother Tostig having obtained the great-earldom of Northumbria, though a Dane by the mother's side, treated the Anglo-Danes of his province in such an arbitrary manner

83. What is said to have caused the death of Earl Godwin?

84. Who succeeded to Godwin's territorial and political power?  
Whom did Harold marry



that the inhabitants generally rose in arms against him obliged him to fly, and put to death numbers of his officers and adherents. Then assembling a great council, they publicly declared Tostig, the son of Godwin, to be deprived of his power and outlawed. On hearing of this seditious movement, King Edward ordered Harold to march with the forces of the south and east against the insurgents. Family pride, wounded in the person of a brother, might have induced Harold to act rigorously against the people who had driven away Tostig. But the son of Godwin proved himself superior to these passions, and before drawing his sword against his fellow-citizens, he proposed to the Northumbrians to hold a conference to treat for peace. After hearing their statement of grievances, Harold repaired to King Edward and advised him to pardon the Northumbrian insurrectionists, and to legalize his brother's expulsion from his great-earldom. A kingdom in which such events could take place was evidently on the verge of ruin. Neither confidence nor unanimity subsisted between them. Faction was contending against faction; and, as in the time of the Britons, every bystander must have seen that the realm was at the mercy of any invader. During these transactions old age was rapidly advancing upon the childless Edward. He saw the increasing power of Harold, and that the kingdom would be exposed thereby, upon his death, to the greatest danger. He therefore resolved, as a means of securing tranquillity, to nominate Edward, the only surviving son of Edmund *Ironside*, heir to the crown (see §. 69). This prince promptly arrived from Hungary, accompanied by his wife Agatha, and his three children, Edgar, Christina, and Margaret; but the people's gladness at the return of Edward *the outlaw* was speedily turned to sorrow. Edward sickened and died soon after his arrival in London, and was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral. Harold gained excessively by this event. Did the prince die a natural death? This is a question which seems to have received a negative answer from the early chroniclers.

85. *William of Normandy, Heir-presumptive.*—King Edward's design having been thus frustrated, he seems next to have bequeathed his crown to Duke William of Normandy, his bastard cousin on the mother's side, from whose connections he had received much kindness. This choice, disastrous

84. How did Harold act on the expulsion of his brother Tostig from his great-earldom? Who did King Edward acknowledge as his heir? What followed?

85. Why is it supposed that Edward selected Duke William of Normandy for his successor?



as it afterwards appeared to be from its consequences, was not devoid of foresight and prudence. The great English nobles might have disdained or unwillingly submitted to the dominion of an equal, while the obstacle arising from Harold's ancestry was indeed insuperable. No individual, who was not of an ancient royal house, had ever been able to maintain himself upon an Anglo-Saxon throne. It is said, that Edward even sent Harold on a special mission to inform Duke William that he had left him heir to the crown. However this may be, it is certain that Harold visited the court of Normandy, and that he was not allowed to return without promising and confirming by an oath taken on 'good and holy relics' (the pretended bones of canonised persons), that he would support Duke William in obtaining the succession to the crown. The health of King Edward sensibly declined from the period of these events; and to stifle the thoughts of future danger, he gave himself wholly up to the details of religious observances; he made large donations to the churches and monasteries, in return for which he procured the surname of *The Confessor*, or the Repentant. "He was at last surprised by sickness, which brought him to his end, on the 5th of January, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and twenty-fifth of his reign, 1066."

86. *Harold II. assumes the Crown.*—There were three claimants for the Confessor's crown—Edgar Atheling (§. 84), Duke William of Normandy, and Great-earl Harold; but, whilst William was absent, Edgar young and spiritless, Harold was on the spot, a man of mature age, in full vigour of body and mind, possessing great influence and great wealth. And on the very day that Edward's body was entombed, Harold induced the prelates and nobles assembled at Westminster to accept him as king. Some historians say that he obtained the crown by force. This is not to be understood as implying actual violence; but merely that he was unwillingly recognised. The successor of the Norman fugitive (§. 81), Archbishop Stigand of Canterbury, who was suspended by the Pope, was the only prelate who acknowledged Harold's authority. Some portions of the kingdom seem never to have acknowledged Harold. In others, a sullen obedience was extorted from the people, or more correctly from the great nobles. Certainly the realm was not Harold's by any legal title, even although he had living two infant sons by his deceased wife, the Confessor's sister; nor had

85. Why was Edward called "the Confessor?" When did he die?

86. Under what circumstances did Harold succeed to the crown? Was he freely elected by the prelates and nobles? Was he acknowledged over all the kingdom? Who were opposed to him?



the Anglo-Saxon crown ever been worn by a purely elective monarch.

87. *Harold's Administration*.—The commencement of the new reign was marked by a complete return to the national usages that had been abandoned in the preceding reign. It is stated by a writer who lived near the time, that from the moment of his accession, Harold showed himself pious, humble, and affable; and that he spared himself no fatigue, either by land or sea, for the defence of his country. He effectually cleared the court of the unpopular Norman favourites; but their property was respected, they were left in the enjoyment of their civil rights, and not a few retained their employments; but instead of being grateful for this generous treatment, they employed themselves in intriguing at home and abroad for the foreign duke of Normandy. From them Duke William received information of Edward's death, and of Harold having been proclaimed king.

88. *Duke William's Agitation*.—At the moment when William received this news, he was in his hunting grounds near Rouen, holding a bow in his hand with some new arrows that he was trying. On a sudden he was observed to be very pensive, and giving the bow to one of his attendants, he leaped into a skiff, crossed the river Seine, and then hurried on to his palace of Rouen, without saying a word to any one. He stopped in the great hall, and strode up and down that apartment; now sitting down, now rising, changing his seat and his posture, as if unable to find rest in any. None of the attendants durst approach, he looked so fierce and agitated. Recovering from his reverie, Duke William agreed that ambassadors should be sent to England.

89. *The Normans*. — The Danes and Northmen, corrupted into Normen or Normans, were the same people (§. 39) who began towards the end of the eighth century to infest all the maritime coasts of Europe, especially England and France. During the reign of Charles *the Fat* and of Charles *the Simple*, France was sorely harassed by their incursions, 879–912. But not content with the havoc they made on the coasts, they ascended the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Rhone, carrying fire and sword to the very centre of the kingdom. Nantes and various other cities experienced the fury of these invaders. Paris was three times sacked and pillaged by them. Robert *the Strong*,

87. What was Harold's policy? How did he conduct himself?

88. What effect had the news of Harold's accession upon Duke William?

89. Who were the Normans?



grandson of Hugh *Capet* (Hugh the Great), whom Charles *the Bald* had created (in 861) Duke (or governor) of Neustria, was killed in battle while successfully combating against the Normans, 868. At length the terror which they had everywhere spread was such that the French, who trembled at the very name of the Normans, had no longer courage to encounter them in arms, and in order to rid themselves of such formidable enemies, they consented to purchase their retreat by a sum of money; a wretched and futile remedy, which only aggravated the evil, by inciting the invaders, by the hope of gain, to return to the charge. Charles *the Simple*, or the Stupid, wishing to put a check on their continued incursions, abandoned to the Norman chief Rollo the provinces of Normandy and Bretagne. Rollo embraced Christianity, and received the baptismal name of Robert. He submitted to become a vassal of the crown of France, under the title of Duke of Normandy, and obtained in marriage the princess Gisele, daughter of Charles *the Simple*, 892.

90. *William of Normandy's early Life*.—Duke William, the invader of England, was the bastard son of Robert, fifth duke of Normandy, by a young girl named Arlète of Falaise, whom he one day chanced to see on his return from the chase, 1024. Young William was only seven years of age when his father desired to walk to Jerusalem in pilgrimage, one of the then pretended modes of obtaining full remission of his sins. The barons of Normandy wished to detain him, representing to him that it would not be well for them to be left without a chief. "By my troth," answered Duke Robert, "I will not leave you without a lord. I have a little bastard who, if it please God, will grow up and prove a valiant man; and I am certain that he is my own son. Receive him, therefore, as your lord, for I declare him to be heir unto me, and I give him seisin (legal possession) from this moment of the duchy of Normandy; choose him forthwith, and, before you all, I will possess him of this duchy as my successor." The Norman barons did what the duke proposed, because (say the old chroniclers) they found it convenient; they swore fealty to the child (to be true to the lord of whom they held their lands), and placed their hands in his. But several chiefs, in particular the relations of the former dukes, protested against this election, saying that a bastard was not worthy to command the sons of Danes. These malcontents levied a numerous army, but they were

89. When did they establish themselves in France? Who was their chief?

90. What is said of the early life of Duke William of Normandy?



vanquished in a pitched battle in the Val-des-dunes, near Caen, not however without the aid of the king of France, who supported the cause of the young duke for the sake of personal interest, and that he might exercise an influence over the affairs of the country. William, as he advanced in age, became more and more dear to his partizans. The day when he for the first time put on armour, and mounted, without a stirrup, his first war-horse, was a day of rejoicing in Normandy. He occupied himself with military concerns from his youth, and made war upon his neighbours of Anjou and Brittany. He was passionately fond of fine horses, especially those which have proper names to distinguish their genealogy; and had them brought (say his contemporaries) from Gascony, Auvergne, and Spain. The young son of Duke Robert and Arlète was ambitious and vindictive to excess. He impoverished his father's family as much as possible to enrich his relatives by the mother's side. He often punished in a sanguinary manner the railleries which the dishonour of his birth drew upon him. One day, when he was attacking the town of Alençon, the besieged thought proper to shout to him from the walls, *La peau! la peau! à la peau!* (*the fellmonger*), at the same time beating some skins, in allusion to the trade of William's grandfather. The Bastard immediately had the feet and hands of all the prisoners he had taken cut off, and thrown by his slingers into the town. Such is Augustin Thierry's sketch of the early life and character of Duke William, who determined to assert his claim of right to the crown of England, and to achieve it by force of arms.

91. *Treachery of Tostig Godwin, 1066.*—The first storm of war that burst upon England did not however proceed from Normandy, but from the treachery of Harold's own brother Tostig, whom the Northumbrians had expelled from his command, and whom King Harold would not again place over them. Soon after Harold's coronation, Tostig repaired to Rouen from his residence in Flanders, to exhort Duke William not to suffer the peaceful reign of his perjured brother. Tostig pretended that he had more power and influence in England than Harold; and promised beforehand the certain possession of that country to whomsoever would unite with him for its conquest. Duke William, too prudent to engage in so important an enterprise merely on the word of an adventurer, gave the Saxon some vessels wherewith to try his strength; but with which, instead of landing in England, Tostig sailed to the Baltic to solicit assistance against his

91. How did Tostig act towards his brother King Harold?



country from the kings of the north. He only succeeded in inducing King Harold Hardrada of Norway to co-operate with him. While waiting the preparations of his ally, Tostig crossed over to try his fortune on the northern coasts of England, with a band of marauders collected in Friesland, Holland, and Flanders. He plundered and destroyed some villages, but the brothers Morcar and Edwin, great-earls of Northumbria and Mercia, forced him to re-embark with his piratical associates.

92. *William's Message to Harold.*—While encamped with his forces along the southern coast, King Harold had a messenger sent to him from Normandy, who addressed him in these words: "William, Duke of Normandy, sends to remind thee of the oath which thou hast sworn to him with thy mouth and with thy hand upon good and holy relics" (§. 85). "It is true," replied the Saxon king, "that I took an oath to William; but I took it under constraint. I promised what did not belong to me; a promise which I could not in any way perform. My royal authority is not my own; I could not lay it down against the will of the country." The Norman messenger carried back this answer, and William replied by a second message, with reproaches, but expressed in mild and moderate terms. He entreated the king, if he would not consent to fulfil all the conditions he had sworn, at least to receive in marriage his daughter Adela, whom he had promised to take for his second wife. Harold answered that he would not fulfil that obligation. Upon this the final words, declarative of war, were pronounced. Harold soon after married the sister of his Saxon great-earls, Morcar and Edwin; whereupon William swore that within the year he would come to exact all his due, and to be avenged and pursue his perjured foe.

93. *William intrigues with Rome.*—The tranquillity which Duke William had established in his territories favoured his personal desires to attempt the conquest of the English throne. He was also energetically encouraged by the Roman Catholic church. Negotiations were begun the moment the news of the pretended crime of Harold and of the English nation had been carried beyond the Alps. The Duke of Normandy was encouraged to prefer an accusation of sacrilege against his enemy before the Pontifical Court; he accordingly now demanded that England should

92. What message did William send to Harold? What answer was returned? What followed?

93. Did the Roman Catholic church encourage the pretensions of William? Why (§. 78)? What was William urged to do?



be laid by the church under interdict, and declared to be the property of him who should first take possession, with the reservation of the pope's approval. He grounded his demand principally upon three alleged complaints: the murder of young Prince Alfred (§. 73), the expulsion of the Norman archbishop from the see of Canterbury (§. 80), and King Harold's perjury (§. 84); moreover, he alleged that he had an undeniable right to the crown by virtue of his relationship to Edward *the Confessor*, and by the wish of that king positively declared on his death-bed.

94. *William appeals to Rome.*—William next assumed the character of a plaintiff at law, requiring that justice should be done to him, and desirous that his adversary should be heard in answer. But King Harold was in vain cited to defend himself before the Consistory at Rome. He refused to acknowledge himself amenable to that court, and he despatched no ambassador thither, being too haughty to submit the independence of his crown to any foreign dictation, and possessed of too much good sense to confide in the impartiality of those judges whom his enemy had appealed to.

95. *Papal Decision and Sentence.*—The Roman Consistory of St. John of Lateran, as the supreme spiritual court of Rome is called, was at that time ruled by Hildebrand (afterwards Pope Gregory VII.), a man whose fame eclipses that of all others during the middle ages. The pleas of Duke William did not however appear to many of the Cardinal judges to be sufficiently weighty, to justify the sanction of the church to a military invasion of England, or an act of hostile aggression against a Christian nation. The imperious Hildebrand still insisting on these points, loud murmurs arose, and the more conscientious prelates declared to him that there would be infamy attached to the authorisation of so homicidal a course; he remained firm in his resolves, and his sentiments at length prevailed. According to the judicial sentence pronounced by Pope Alexander II., Duke William of Normandy had permission to enter England, to bring it back to the Holy See, and to re-establish for ever *the tax of Peter-pence* (see §. 78). Harold and all his ad-

93. What did William demand of the Pope? Upon what grounds?

94. Did the Pope's court declare it itself competent to act judicially in the secular quarrel between Harold and William? Did Harold acquiesce?

95. Were the Roman ecclesiastical dignitaries agreed respecting their jurisdiction? Who overruled their scruples? What were the terms of the Pope's sentence?



herents were excommunicated by a papal interdict\*, which was transmitted to Duke William by his envoy, along with the gift of a banner, and a precious ring in which a single hair of *St. Peter* was enchased upon a diamond of some price. Such was the twofold investiture, pontifical and military; and the holy standard, that was to confer a sacred character on the invasion of England, was the same that the Normans, Raoul and Montreuil, had a few years before planted, in the name of the church, on the towers of Constantinople.

96. *William's Armament—Rewards promised.*—Before finally determining on the invasion of England, Duke William convoked a great national assembly, in order to obtain the consent of those who would be called upon to pay the expenses. At first it was warmly opposed; but upon the arrival in Normandy of the Papal interdict, banner, and ring, public excitement became universal; every one brought what he could, and mothers sent their sons to enlist for the salvation of their souls. Duke William published his proclamations of war in the neighbouring countries, and offered good pay and the plunder of England to every tall and stout man who would serve him with spear, sword, or cross-bow. A multitude came by all roads, from far and near, from the north and the south, from all parts of France, Belgium, Piedmont, and the countries along the banks of the Rhine. All the adventurers by profession, all the outcasts of Western Europe, came eagerly and by forced marches. Some were cavaliers or warlike chiefs, others were simply foot-soldiers and serjeants-at-arms, as they were then called; some asked for pay in money, others only for their passage and all the booty they could make; many wished for land among the English, a demesne, a castle, or a town: while others would

96. What effect had the Papal authorization of the invasion of England on Normandy and the Continent generally? What was offered by Duke William to adventurers from all parts?

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\* The form of an interdict, as set down by Du Cange, was as follows:—*In the name of Christ, We the bishop, in behalf of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, and of St. Peter, the chief of the apostles, and in our own behalf, do excommunicate and interdict this church, and all the chapels thereunto belonging, and that no man from henceforth may have cause to sing mass, or to hear it, or in any wise to administer any divine office, nor to receive God's tithes without our leave; and whoever shall presume to sing or hear mass, or perform any divine office, or receive any tithes contrary to this interdict, on the part of God the Father Almighty, and of his Son, and of the Holy Ghost, and on the behalf of St. Peter, and of all the saints, let him be accursed and separated from all Christian Society, and from entering into Holy Mother Church, where there is forgiveness of sins; and let him be Anathema (accursed), Maranatha (accursed in the highest degree), for ever, with the devils in hell. Fiat, Fiat, Fiat (Let it be done, Let it be done, Let it be done), Amen.*



be content with some rich Saxon woman in marriage. Every wish, every project of human covetousness presented itself. Duke William rejected no one, says the Norman chronicle, but promised favours to every one according to his ability. He even went so far as to grant an English bishopric, in prospect, to one Remi of Fescamp, for a ship and twenty men-at-arms.

97. *Hardrada and Tostig's Invasion.*—Unfortunately for King Harold, while Duke William was about embarking his forces in Normandy, the Norwegian Harold Hardrada, faithful to his engagements with the traitor Tostig, crossed over with 250 ships, and joined him on the east coast of Scotland. The united fleets then sailed up the Humber, ascended the Ouse, and landed their forces near the city of York. They soon after worsted the great-earls Morcar and Edwin, and drove them into that city. When this disaster took place, King Harold was on the southern coast with all his army, waiting the approach of the invaders. The delay of the Norman expedition had given rise to the belief that it would not be ready to sail before the winter. Besides, the danger was greater from the northern enemies, who were already masters of a part of the English territories. Harold, bold and quick in all his projects, hoped in the course of a few days to have driven the Norwegians away, and to return in time to receive the Normans. He set out at the head of his best troops, and arrived, by forced marches, under the walls of York the night the city capitulated, to surrender next morning to the allies of Tostig. The citizens of York again took up arms; the gates were shut and well guarded, so that no one could quit the town to communicate with the Norwegian camp.

98. *Battle of York—Tostig and Hardrada killed.*—Before the battle commenced on the following day, twenty Saxon horsemen, both men and horses covered with steel, approached the Norwegian lines, and cried with a loud voice, "Where is Tostig, the son of Godwin?" "He is here," answered the son of Godwin for himself. "If thou be Tostig," resumed the messenger, "thy brother tells thee by my mouth that he salutes thee, and offers thee peace, his friendship, and thy former honours." "These," said Tostig, "are fine words; but if I accept these offers, what will there be for the noble King Hardrada, the son of Sigurd, my faithful ally?" "He shall have," answered the speaker, "seven feet of

97. What other formidable enemy had King Harold to encounter? Where did he land his forces? What followed?

98. Relate the particulars of the battle of York.



English ground, and a little more, as he is taller than most other men." "Then," replied Tostig, "tell my brother to prepare for battle; never shall it be said by any but a liar that the son of Godwin abandoned the son of Sigurd." The battle immediately began; and, in the first onset, the Norwegian king was shot with an arrow in the throat. Tostig then took the command of the army, and Harold sent a second time to offer him and the Norwegians peace and life. But they all cried out that they would rather die than owe anything to the Saxons. The fight again recommenced, when Tostig was killed with most of the Norwegian chiefs. Harold now, for the third time, offered peace to the vanquished, which they accepted, September 25, 1066. But while the Norwegians were departing, never to return, other enemies were approaching; and the same breath of wind that waved the victorious Saxon banners as in triumph, also filled the Norman sails and wafted them toward the coast of Sussex.

99. *The Norman Invasion, Sept. 28, 1066.*—By an unfortunate mischance, the English cruisers had returned to port for provisions just before the battle of York. Both the army and war-ships being thus absent from the coast, William of Normandy was allowed to land his "army of 60,000 men, all equipped in the most warlike and splendid manner," without resistance, at Pevensey near Hastings, on the 28th of September, 1066, three days after King Harold's victory over the Norwegians. The archers landed first; they wore short habits, and had their hair shaven off. The cavaliers landed next, clad in coats of mail and wearing bracelets of polished iron nearly of a conical make, armed also with long and heavy lances, and with straight two-edged swords. After them came the workmen of the army—pioneers, carpenters, and smiths—who unloaded on the shore, piece by piece, three wooden castles, framed and prepared beforehand. The duke came ashore last of all: on setting his foot upon the sands, he made a false step and fell upon his face. A murmur immediately arose; and some voices cried, "God preserve us!" "This is a bad sign." But William, rising, exclaimed, "What is the matter with you? what astonishes ye? I have seized on this land with both my hands; and, by the splendour of God, as much as there is of it, it is yours." This quick repartee instantly prevented their discouragement by so ill an omen.

99. How was the Norman army allowed to land in England without opposition? Where was the disembarkation effected? What was the strength of William's army? What happened to William on stepping ashore?



The army marched upon the town of Hastings; near which place an encampment was formed, and two of the wooden castles were erected and furnished with provisions. Bodies of soldiers overran all the neighbouring country, plundering and burning the houses, and even slaughtering the inhabitants who flocked to the churches and churchyards, in the hope of finding a secure asylum from Christian enemies acting under the authority of the pope.

100. *Harold marches back to the South.*—Harold was at York, wounded and resting from his fatigues, when a messenger arrived in haste to inform him that William of Normandy had landed his army, and planted his standard on the Anglo-Saxon territory. He immediately marched back to the south with his victorious army, publishing an order as he passed along to the chiefs of counties to put all their fighting-men under arms, and to lead them towards London. The militias of the west came without delay; those of the north were later, on account of the distance; but there was, nevertheless, reason to believe that the king of England would soon be surrounded by the whole military force of the country. One of those Normans, in whose favour the outlawry had not been enforced, and who now played the part of spies and secret agents of the invader, sent word to Duke William to be on his guard, for that in four days Harold would have around him 100,000 men. The Saxon king, too quick in his movements, did not wait four days. He could not restrain his eagerness for coming to an engagement with the invaders, especially when he found the ravages of every description which they were committing around their camp. The hope of sparing his countrymen some misery, and perhaps the desire of making an abrupt and unexpected attack upon the Normans, like that by which he had already met with success against the Norwegians, determined him to march towards Hastings with forces four times less numerous than those of the duke of Normandy.

101. *Battle of Hastings—Fall of Harold II.*—After the two armies came in sight of each other, one whole day was passed in the interchange of fruitless messages. Among others, William called upon Harold to do one of three things: either to resign his royal dignities; refer to the arbitration of the pope; or, to decide the quarrel between them by single combat, and thus to spare the blood of thousands; but Harold refused, and said he would leave it to the God of

99. What was the conduct of the Norman troops?

100. How did Harold act when informed of these events?

101. When the hostile armies met, what did William do?



battles to determine. Both armies therefore bivouacked that night in sight of each other, expecting the dawning of the next day with impatience, at Senlac within seven miles of Hastings, which afterwards bore, and still bears, the name of *Battle*. The English passed the night in songs and feasting; the Normans in devotion and prayer. "The next morning at seven, as soon as day dawned, both armies were drawn up in array against each other. Harold appeared in the centre of his forces, leading on his army on foot, that his men might be more encouraged, by seeing their king exposed to an equality of danger. William fought on horseback, leading on his army that moved at once, singing the song of Roland, one of the famous chiefs of their country. The Normans began the fight with their cross-bows, which, at first, galled and surprised the English; and as their ranks were close, their arrows did great execution. But soon they came to closer fight, and the English, with their bills, hewed down their adversaries with great slaughter. Confusion was spreading among the ranks, when William, who found himself upon the brink of destruction, hastened with a select band to the relief of his forces. His presence restored the suspense of battle; he was seen in every place, endeavouring to pierce the ranks of the enemy, and had three horses slain under him. At length, perceiving the English line continued impenetrable, he pretended to give ground, which, as he expected, drew the enemy from their ranks, and he was instantly ready to take advantage of their disorder. Upon a signal given, the Normans immediately returned to the charge with greater fury than before, broke the English troops, and pursued them to a rising ground. It was in this extremity that Harold was seen flying from rank to rank, rallying and inspiring his troops with vigour; and though he had toiled all day till near night-fall, in the front of his Kentish men, yet he still seemed unabated in force or courage, keeping his men to the post of honour. Once more therefore the victory seemed to turn against the Normans, and they fell in great numbers, so that the fierceness and obstinacy of this memorable battle was often renewed by the courage of the leaders, whenever that of the soldiers began to slacken. Fortune at length determined a victory that valour was unable to decide. Harold, making a furious onset at the head of his troops against the Norman heavy-armed infantry, was shot into the brains by an arrow; and his two valiant

101. How are they said to have passed the night before the battle? Describe the conduct of Harold and William. How did the victory seem to incline? By what stratagem did the Normans prevail? How did Harold fall?



brothers, Gurth and Leofwine, fighting by his side, shared the same fate. Harold fell with his sword in his hand, amidst heaps of slain." The remains of the English army, without a chief and without a standard, prolonged the contest until the close of day, when the combatants could only recognise one another by their language.

102. *Corpse of Harold*.—The victor is now installed; but what has become of the mortal spoils of his competitor? Those who lived near the time, relate in explicit terms that duke William refused the rites of sepulture to his excommunicated enemy. Pictavensis, the chaplain of the Conqueror, a most trustworthy and competent witness, informs us that a body of which the features were undistinguished, but supposed from certain tokens to be that of Harold, was found between the corpses of his brothers Gurth and Leofwine, and that duke William caused this corpse to be interred in the sands of the sea-shore. "Let him guard the coast," said William, "which he so madly occupied;" and though his mother Githa had offered to purchase the body by its weight in gold, yet William was not to be tempted by the gift of the sorrowing parent, or touched by her tears. Another account is, that the monks of Waltham Abbey, which had been founded and richly endowed by Harold, obtained permission from the Conqueror to search for, and to remove his remains. But they sought in vain, until assisted by Edith the beloved mistress of Harold before he was king. A ghastly, decomposing and mutilated corpse was selected by Edith, and conveyed to Waltham as the body of Harold; and there entombed, with great honour and solemnity, many Norman nobles assisting in the requiem or hymn for the dead.

103. *The English betrayed not conquered—Submission of Kent*.—It was the death of Harold, not the discomfiture at Senlac, that led to the overthrow of Anglo-Saxon independence. Only a small portion of the military force of England had been engaged, while the whole power of Normandy was there imperilled. Had disunion and treachery among the great nobles not followed, William would have gained no more by his victory than the privilege of fighting another battle with greatly diminished forces. It can scarcely be doubted that every invader would either have been destroyed or captured, for Harold had reassembled a fleet of 700 vessels, with their crews reinforced by a numerous body of his best soldiers to prevent their escape. Even the inhabitants of the surrounding district had no intention of

102. What is related respecting the corpse of Harold?

103. What led to the final success of William?



succumbing to the invaders. A Norman reinforcement which landed by mistake after the battle near Romney, only seventeen miles distant, was attacked and beaten by the peasantry. When William received, a few days after his victory, intelligence of this disaster, he resolved to possess the south-eastern coast, to prevent others befalling his expected reinforcements. Instead of advancing to London, he fell back upon Hastings, and there remained for some time, to see whether his presence would not of itself induce the surrounding inhabitants to make a voluntary submission. But no one came to solicit peace; and the victor recommenced his march along the coast from south to north. At Romney, he revenged the rout of his soldiers by burning the houses and murdering the inhabitants. He next burned Dover and gained possession of the fort on the overhanging cliff, with its face to the sea hewed nearly as straight as a wall, which made it the strongest place on the coast. William afterwards led his army along the great Roman road, then called Wetlinga-street, through the middle of Kent. It is uncertain whether he was hostilely attacked, or was peacefully met on the borders of a forest, by a numerous body of Kentish men headed by archbishop Stigand of Canterbury. This meeting, at any rate, was followed by submission on condition that they and their posterity should enjoy their rights, liberties, and laws. This treaty is said to have led to the preservation in Kent, down to the present time, of the Saxon custom of *gavelkind*, by which among other things, all the sons share alike in the inheritance left by their parents. In thus treating for themselves, and separating their own destiny from the rest of the nation, the authorities of Kent did that which was most injurious to the common cause.

104. *Edgar II. proclaimed—his pusillanimity.*—The bishops greatly encouraged disunion, and authoritatively recommended submission to the invader, who brought with him the Pope's bull and the standard said to have been blessed by St. Peter. They however did not then succeed; the Witenagemot made choice of EDGAR, the young nephew of the Confessor, who was proclaimed king (§ 84, 86). But his election to the throne failed to promote union. Mor

103. How did the neighbouring peasantry act immediately after the discomfiture near Hastings? Did William follow up his victory without delay? What did he wait for? What was the conduct of the authorities of Kent?

104. Who urged submission to the invader? Why? Did they succeed? Who was Edgar's uncle? What was the consequence of Edgar's election?



car and Edwin, brothers-in-law to Harold, and great earls of Northumbria and Mercia, then withdrew from London to their governments, taking with them their soldiers, who were entirely devoted to them. They entertained the vain hope of defending the northern provinces separately from the rest of England. Their departure weakened and discouraged those who remained in London with the king, then only fourteen years of age. Meanwhile, the Normans were approaching the capital from several points, burning the towns and butchering the men whether with arms or without. Five hundred Norman horse advanced to Southwark opposite London, engaged a body of Saxons who opposed them, and in their retreat burned all the buildings on the right bank of the Thames. William, judging from this rencounter that the citizens still intended to defend themselves, crossed the Thames near Wallingford in Berkshire, where he formed an entrenched camp, and there left some troops to intercept communication with the western counties. He then marched with the rest of his army to Berkhamstead in Hertfordshire, where he encamped to prevent the return from the north of the great-earls Morcar and Edwin. By these manœuvres London, even then a great city, was hemmed in on all sides. Numerous foraging parties stopped its supplies and ravaged its environs. The Londoners more than once encountered the Normans; but they gradually became discouraged, not so much by the strength of the enemy, as by the pusillanimous conduct of the king and his advisers, by the dread of famine, and by the disheartening reflection that no measures were taken to organise resistance throughout the country, or to afford them succour. They therefore determined to require the juvenile Edgar to resign his authority, which seems to have been done without any one making a single effort to preserve his crown.

105. *Edgar's submission—William declared King.*—Submission having been resolved upon by the king and the nobles, Edgar repaired to the Norman camp at Berkhamstead, accompanied by the archbishops of Canterbury and York, by several other ecclesiastics and nobles of high rank, and by the principal citizens of London. These delivered hostages to the duke of Normandy, and took the oaths of peace and allegiance to him; while the duke promised, on his honour, that he would prove gentle and clement toward them. He

104. What did the great-earls then do? For what purpose? How old was king Edgar? What measure did William take to distress London? Why did the citizens submit to him?

105. What was the form of submission to William?



thereupon marched towards London, and permitted, notwithstanding his promises, everything that lay in his course to be destroyed. On approaching the rich monastery called St. Alban's Abbey, built near the ruins of an ancient Roman municipal city, William observed with surprise large trunks of felled trees disposed so as to impede or to interrupt his passage. He caused the abbot to be brought before him. "Why," demanded the conqueror, "hast thou thus cut down thy woods?" "I have but done my duty," answered the Saxon monk; "and if all of my order had done the same, as they might and ought to have done, perhaps thou would not have penetrated so far into our country." William did not himself proceed to the capital, but stayed at Barking in Essex, about seven miles distant, until a fortress had been built for his residence on the site of the present citadel or tower of London. While this work was proceeding, the Norman chiefs determined to remain inactive, contenting themselves in the meantime with declaring William king of England, and recommending him to have himself crowned. Christmas-day, which was then approaching, was fixed upon for the ceremony. Archbishop Stigand of Canterbury, who had taken the oath of peace to the Conqueror in his camp at Berkhamstead, was invited to consecrate and to crown him, according to ancient custom in *West-minster*, then outside London. Stigand refused to give his benediction to the shedder of human blood, and to the invader of the rights of another; but the less scrupulous archbishop of York performed the required service. The ceremony was disgraced by an unprovoked outrage of the Normans upon the English. When the customary questions were asked, the representatives of the two nations answered them with such vehement acclamations, that the soldiers outside the minster affected to believe it a revolt, and immediately began to massacre the people, and to fire the neighbouring houses. The tumult was so violent that those in the minster fled with terror, leaving none but William and the bishops to finish the ceremony. Thus ended the Saxon power in England, which had continued for more than six hundred years (455—1066).

105. What followed? Where did William take up his residence in London? What did the Norman chiefs recommend? When and where was he crowned? What was there remarkable at his coronation? How long had the Anglo-Saxons possessed dominion in England?



## CHAPTER V.

OF THE SOCIAL STATE, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS OF THE  
ANGLO-SAXONS.

106. *The Distribution of the conquered Territory.*—Having determined from the first to settle on their conquests, the Anglo-Saxons dispossessed the Britons, and divided their lands among all those by whose swords the occupied territory had been acquired. This was done by the chiefs collectively. The chieftain or war-king had lands allotted for his personal and official support; and in like manner all the subordinate chiefs and inferior officers, probably in proportion to the number of soldiers under their respective command. The district assigned to a subaltern officer and his men was called a *manor*, a word signifying “the abiding place.” Within this district each of his followers received an allotment of land, which he held of his officer or lord, on precisely the same conditions as his own was held of the sovereign. The meanest Saxon received a hide of land, a variable quantity of from 80 to 120 acres according to the quality of the land. It was always such a quantity of arable, meadow, and pasture land as would abundantly support a family. Lesser quantities of land, generally from 15 to 40 acres, were given to the subjugated Britons employed in cultivating the lord’s lands, whereupon to raise subsistence for themselves and families; but this was held by them at the lord’s will. The land which still remained unallotted in manors was called the waste, which was common to all its inhabitants. The allotted land was called “*bocland*,” provided the conveyance was made by a written instrument; and the ungranted land, “*folcland*” or the land of the public—the crown lands of modern times.

107. *Social Divisions.*—Under the Anglo-Saxons, the population was divided into four classes or castes—the regal, the noble, the common, and the servile. 1. The regal caste were the reputed descendants of their assumed deified monarch Woden (§ 34). 2. The nobles, the *Earlcund* or *Earl-kind*, were the descendants of the first chiefs and mili-

106. How was the conquered territory divided? What was a manor? What quantity of land was allotted to the Saxon soldiery? How was it held? How were the natives treated? What was the allotted land called? What was folc-land?

107. Into how many classes was the Saxon population divided? Particularise them. Of whom were each composed?



tary leaders, the great landholders and the possessors of high civil and military offices. 3. The common caste, the *Ceorls*, were the Saxon yeomen and commonalty. 4. The servile caste, the *theowes* or *villeins*, were the subjugated Britons and Saxon criminals, who were either annexed to the land or the personal property of particular owners. Properly speaking, there came, however, to be only two classes of subjects—the *eorl-kind* and *ceorl-kind*—the servile being regarded as property, and the subordinate regal members having merged into the noble. The *eorls* and *ceorls* were always named in marked antithesis to each other. Whoever was not included in the one class belonged to the other; whoever could not bestow protection was required to owe fealty, or loyalty and service to him of whom he held his land, the branch of which the highest orders of nobility were open to the lower classes. *Theyn* or *thane* was the generic term for noble. These were of two kinds—the king's thanes, and the lesser thanes, either of whom might be distinguished by various official titles, as *earldorman*, *herotach*, *eorl*, and *gerefa* or *sheriff*, which were personal and not inherited. The king's thanes were those who held manors with jurisdiction within them immediately from the sovereign; the lesser thanes, those who held lands mediately from the king's thanes—the lords of manors. One law of Athelstan declared that a merchant who had made three voyages on his own account was entitled to the dignity of *thane*; another decreed the same rank to a *ceorl* or husbandman on becoming the proprietor of five hides of land (from 400 to 600 acres), a chapel, a hall, a kitchen, and a bell. By the custom of *gavel kind*, land was divided equally among all the male children of a deceased proprietor.

108. *Territorial political Subdivisions*.—The Anglo-Saxons subdivided their conquests into shires or counties; each county into hundreds or districts (called *wapentakes* north of the Trent), containing at first one hundred families, and every hundred into subdistricts or *tithings* of ten families. By this arrangement every householder was answerable for his family, and every stranger who stayed with him more than two nights. The towns were accountable for every householder residing in them; the hundred, for every town

107. Did all these classes continue? What constituted a noble? What a *ceorl*? Who were the thanes? How many kinds of thanes were there, and how were they distinguished? What titles were borne by high official persons? How did merchants and freemen attain the rank of *thane*?

108. How was land devisable? What is said of the territorial political subdivisions? What purpose was gained by these regulations?



or village comprehended therein; and the county, for the inhabitants in all the hundred within it.

109. *Government*.—The Anglo-Saxon government was extremely aristocratical. They naturally retained in their new settlement in Britain a policy similar to their accustomed usages. Their subordination was chiefly a military one, the king having no more authority than what belonged to the general, or military leader. There was no strict rule of succession to the throne; for although the king was generally chosen by the thanes from the family of the last prince, the choice usually fell on the member thereof with the best capacity for government, as in the cases of Alfred, Athelstan, Edred, Edmund *Ironsides*. In some instances the destination of the last sovereign regulated the choice. The principal offices of government were hereditary in particular families; and each thane commanded the military force located on their respective manors. The king's thanes (§ 107) possessed much uncontrolled and lawless rule over their dependants. The courts of the tithing or parish, the hundred, and the county, were however some restraint on their power. Pecuniary fines were the ordinary atonement for every species of crime, two-thirds of these devolving to the king, and forming a considerable part of the royal revenue. Besides these fines, the king's revenue consisted partly of the rents of his (private) demesnes, and of the public or crown-lands, which were extensive, and partly in imposts on boroughs and seaports. The expense of building castles and bridges, and of defending the state, lay equally on all the land. The Danegelt was a land-tax imposed either for payment of tribute exacted by the Danes, or for defending the kingdom against them. Every five hides (of land) or ploughs was taxed to furnish, clothe, arm, and maintain a soldier for about two months in each year, when so required; consequently, as there were 243,600 hides in England, the ordinary militia force consisted of 48,720 men.

110. *The Witenagemot*.—One institution common to all the kingdoms of the Octarchy was the Witenagemot, or great council, whose consent was requisite for enacting laws

109. What was the principle of the Anglo-Saxon government? How was the king's authority limited? In what way? How were the excesses of the nobles checked? How were most offences atoned for? What were the principal sources of the king's revenue? What liabilities attached to the land? How was the military force raised and maintained? What was its numerical amount? How often and for what time could it ordinarily be assembled for service?

110. What is meant by Octarchy (§ 32)?



and ratifying the chief acts of public administration. The nobles holding land, and the bishops and abbots, formed a part of this assembly, as did the governors of counties—the earldormen, aldermen, or earls. The Wites, or wise men, are discriminated from the prelates and nobility, and are supposed by some to have been the representatives of the commons; but as we hear nothing of election or representation in those periods, they rather appear to have been those who, from their weight and consequence in the country, were summoned to take part in the deliberations of the Witenagemot, which were open to the public like as the courts of law at present. The public appear also to have been allowed to applaud or censure the proceedings.

111. *Local Self-government*.—Each locality to do its own governing was the especial characteristic of Saxon polity. Each parish, as the federal unit, was governed by its elective officers and juries, the chief of these being called the tithingman, borseholder, borohead, chief-pledge, petty-constable, &c. The parish authorities appear to have had final adjudication in most civil and ecclesiastical causes. The hundred court, presided over by the bailiff or high-constable, had jurisdiction in all *civil* matters pertaining to it; the county court, by the earldorman and the bishop, the same for itself; while the courts leet and sheriff's tourn periodically administered *criminal* justice. The hundred court was composed of jurymen elected by each parish (the lords thereof not being of the number); and the county court, of jurymen returned by each hundred. In the earlier times offences were determined on by the ordeal of fire and water, the capability of carrying in the hand with or without injury a ball of hot iron or of removing a stone from a vessel of boiling water; and by the evidence of compurgators,\* witnesses who declared on oath

110. What was the Witenagemot? Who composed it? What was its professed object? What were its powers? Who were the Wites?

111. What was the characteristic of Saxon polity? How was each parish governed? What is said of the hundred, county, leet, and sheriff's town courts? What was the ordeal? What were compurgators?

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\* There were usually twelve compurgators, who came to be called *jurators* or swearers, hence our word *jurors*. This custom is supposed to have led to *trial by jury*—the appointing of a certain number of unconcerned men sworn to inquire of and to judge upon evidence *in matter of fact*, in order to check the false swearing of interested persons, and the better to administer justice. “Compurgation was not allowed.” In some crimes of open violence, or when a man was taken in a manner with the red hand or other proofs of guilt upon him, he could not clear himself by adducing persons to swear to their belief in his innocence. The process in this case was different. It was no longer a contest of oath against oath—*i. e.* the oath of the accuser against the oaths of the accused and his compurgators. The former indeed, swore to the truth



their belief or disbelief of the charge against the accused. But this barbarous and unjust procedure either fell into disrepute or became illegal, generally at least after the time of Alfred, when juries delivered their verdicts in accordance with right between man and man as established by custom, which principles were the parents of the Common law.

112. *Ecclesiastical polity*.—For many years after the first planting of Christianity in England (§ 35), the ecclesiastics lived in communities under superintendents or bishops, who sent them out to instruct the inhabitants around their stations. By degrees the bishops settled ecclesiastics in populous localities, and in manors where churches were built by the lords. But the general settlement of ecclesiastics in each inhabited manor did not take place until after the year 970, when the tithe thereof was made payable to the resident ecclesiastic by a law of king Edgar. The manor or district of each ecclesiastic was then called his priestshire, and afterwards his parish from the Latin word *parochia*—the diocese of the parson.\* As a parish was generally co-extensive with a manor, while a manor rarely extended into two parishes, it is certain that a manor was the original Saxon unit of territorial subdivision. For many years after the establishment of parochial benefices the tithes arising from them were distributed in a fourfold division; one for the use of the bishop, another for maintaining the fabric of the church, a third for

111. What is supposed to have led to trial by jury?

112. How were the christian missionaries first organised? When were ecclesiastics generally appointed to fixed districts? What were these, and what were they afterwards called? What was the Saxon unit of territorial subdivision?

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of the charge, and in this he was supported by the oaths of a competent number of friends, but the latter was obliged to submit to the ordeal, in order that by the judgment of God his guilt or innocence might be made manifest. . . . The ordeal was also to be undergone in the following cases:—1. Where a person accused was unable to adduce a sufficient number of compurgators; 2. Where he had been notoriously guilty of perjury on a previous occasion; 3. Where he was not a freeman; unless his *hlaford*, or lord, swore to his belief in his innocence, or bought him off by paying the wergild. But it seems that even when the ordeal was requisite, the accused was obliged previously to take an oath that he was innocent in the sight of the law (*mid folcrichte unscyldig*). The ordeal was of three kinds:—1. The ordeal of hot iron, in which the accused had to take up and carry for a certain distance a mass of hot iron of a pound weight; 2. The ordeal of hot water, in which he had to take out of a pitcher of boiling water a stone hanging by a string, at a depth equal to the length of his own hand. In some cases he had to undergo the triple ordeal (*thryfeald lada*), in which the iron was increased to three pounds weight, or the stone was sunk in the water to the depth of his elbow; 3. The *Corsnaed*, or ordeal of the accursed morsel. This consisted in making the accused person swallow a piece of bread, accompanied with a prayer that it might choke him if he were guilty. § 83.

\* However much the appellation of *parson* may be depreciated by familiar, clownish, and indiscriminate use, it is the most legal, most beneficial, and most honourable title that a parish clergyman can enjoy; because by his person, *persona*, the invisible church is represented. [1 Black. 384.]



the poor, and the fourth for the maintenance of the parson. When the sees became otherwise amply endowed, the bishops were prohibited from receiving their fourth share of these tithes, and the division was then into three parts only. It is uncertain when the Anglo-Saxon hierarchy was legally established and its dignitaries invested with political power. It however existed long before the Norman conquest, having archbishops, bishops, abbots, and priors, who sat in the Witenagemot; and deans, canons, archdeacons, parsons, and priests; besides monks and nuns in various monasteries.

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### WILLIAM I., SURNAMED THE CONQUEROR.

Began to reign Dec. 25th, 1066;—died Sept. 9th, 1087.

113. *William's Coronation.—Extent of his then Conquest.*—When William of Normandy caused himself to be crowned king of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas-day in the year 1066, it was by force not by law. Had the succession really been bequeathed to him by Edward the Confessor, that king had no right whatever to make such a disposition, as the appointment had been in a great measure elective, the choice being vested in the Witenagemot (§ 109). At his coronation, William's authority was only recognised in London and in the surrounding territory occupied by his troops, extending over the eastern and south-eastern counties from the borders of Lincoln to Dorset, and westwards towards Oxford, which certainly had not submitted.

114. *First Confiscations, 1066–7.*—William's first measures after his coronation were marked by a show of great moderation. The Saxon earls Edwin and Morcar, and other nobles, were left in possession of their estates and offices; Edgar Atheling, the ex-king, then only fourteen years of age, was cherished as a peculiar favourite; and in a progress which William made through the territory occupied by his soldiers, he everywhere studied to conciliate the people by the affability and justice of his proceedings. But this promising state of matters soon changed. When his conquest had been bridled in every direction with fortresses, which were built in the short space of four months, the inhabitants were then made to feel that they were subju-

113. From what epoch did William's reign properly commence? By what right did he become king? What were the then limits of his conquest?

114. How did William act after his coronation?



gated. At first an enormous war-tribute was imposed upon the people; and afterwards the estates of those Englishmen who had fallen at Hastings were conferred upon the foreign warriors. Then followed the lands of those who had survived the conflict; and lastly, those men who had taken no share in the battle, were stripped of their possessions, because they had *intended* to resist the Normans. And now the promises which William had so largely made both to his Norman subjects and foreign auxiliaries, were executed to the full, and lordships, castles, and estates, were distributed among about 1000 of his principal officers as benefices for themselves and those under their command;\* while those who had stipulated for Saxon brides received the well-dowried widows of those Englishmen who had fallen in the battle. The church property, too, was doomed to similar spoliation, and the swarms of monks and priests who had accompanied William's army were gratified with rich bishoprics and monasteries. "Low-born squires, and filthy vagabonds," say the English writers of this period, "disposed at their will of young women of the best families, leaving them to weep and wish for death. Infatuated wretches! they wondered at their deeds, and went mad with pride and astonishment, at finding themselves so powerful, and having servants with greater wealth than their fathers had ever possessed. Whatever they willed, they thought they had the right to do; and they shed blood in wantonness, snatched the last morsel from the mouths of the unfortunate, and seized everything—money, goods, and land."

115. *William visits Normandy—Insurrections, 1067.*—Having completed his arrangements for preserving the territory conquered in his first campaign, William sailed from Pavensey, near Hastings, the place where he landed with his army exactly six months before, carrying with him to Normandy the rich booty retained for himself, together with many of the Anglo-Saxon nobles as hostages for the tranquillity of England during his absence. On arriving in Normandy his own subjects and the French were dazzled with the display of the

114. Among how many superior military officers were the first confiscations divided? What was the nature of these grants? What atrocities did William allow?

115. When did William return to Normandy? Whom did he take with him?

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\* At this time the grants of land were certainly not absolute gifts, but merely as military benefices, precisely analogous to clerical benefices, for the maintenance of an officer and those under his command, the usufruct to be enjoyed by them so long only as they were in the service of their commander-in-chief—the King.



rich spoils of the conquest; and while all thronged to congratulate him, none were dismissed unrewarded. William appointed for his viceroys during his absence, his half-brother Odo, the proud bishop of Bayeux, who had borne a distinguished share in the victory of Hastings, and William Fitz-Osbert, the seneschal of Normandy. These men so much exceeded the oppression even of William himself, that the English, in despair, solicited the aid of an old enemy, Count Eustace, of Boulogne, who readily embarked at the summons, landed with a powerful force, and unsuccessfully attempted to surprise Dover castle. The Norman garrison made a stout resistance, and a false alarm being raised that Odo was coming in full force to its relief, Eustace retreated so hurriedly to his shipping, that many of his followers, in their haste, fell from the cliffs and perished. This patriotic movement was but a prelude to others, that began to extend through all the parts of England that were still unsubdued. These alarming occurrences hastily recalled William from Normandy in December 1067.

116. *William's second campaign, 1068.*—On his return from the Continent, William soothed the people with proclamations, and by his promises of preserving the laws of the Confessor inviolate, he succeeded in separating the submissive from the patriotic; after which he set off to subdue the south-western provinces. Exeter was bravely defended for eighteen days; the greater part of the Norman army perished before it, and it only fell after the arrival of a second army, aided by the cowardice or treachery of the English leaders. Devonshire, Cornwall, Somerset, and Gloucester were then reduced to subjection, and soon afterwards parcelled out among the Normans. The northern provinces still remained free, and thither multitudes of the persecuted natives repaired for shelter from every part of England; while the Anglo-Saxon earls, Edwin and Morcar, having formed an alliance with the Welsh, resolved to maintain the national independence over the country beyond the Humber, where no foreign soldier had yet been seen, with the city of York for its chief bulwark. In the mean time William continued his progress of conquest, and the towns of Oxford, Warwick, Leicester, Derby, Nottingham, and Lincoln, fell into his hands. On the last of these captures, the Norman army advanced into Yorkshire, and after overwhelming the confederated English and Welsh

115. Whom did he appoint as viceroys? How did they act? What followed?

116. How did William act on his return? What were the results of his second campaign?



by superiority of numbers, they stormed the city of York, and put all the inhabitants to the sword. A strong Norman garrison was then placed in the city, while the dispirited patriots retired before the conquerors, or fled for refuge to Scotland. William thereafter hastened southward to encounter the sons of Harold, Edmund and Godwin, who had come over with a body of Irish and obtained a victory over the Normans near Bristol. The western provinces then rose; but as the pretensions of the English princes were not favoured by the people of the north, they were driven away by William's generals, while he himself destroyed the assemblage of insurgents from along the Welsh frontier in a single battle near Stafford. These successes were followed by fresh confiscations and distributions of estates among his soldiers.

117. *William's third campaign, 1069.*—This was the most eventful year in the whole reign of William. Parties from the garrison which had been left at York, could scarcely adventure a mile from that post without being attacked by the natives, who lay constantly in ambush in the surrounding wood. On the governor communicating to William that he would not be answerable, without prompt succour, for the security of York itself, the king hastened in person and arrived before the city, when the castle was actually besieged by the citizens and by the country people. Having raised the siege by a sudden attack, William laid the foundation of a second castle in York, and reinforced the garrison, thereafter returning southward. Thinking themselves now secure in this advanced post, the Normans, under Robert de Comine, resumed the offensive, and made a desperate attempt to extend their frontier as far north as Durham. The Norman leader marched unopposed; he even entered Durham, and took up his quarters in the midst of fancied security. But at night, the banks of the Tyne and the neighbouring heights were lighted with watch-fires, by which the men of Northumberland were assembled, and at day-break they burst into the town, and assailed their enemies from every quarter. The surprised Normans made a desperate resistance in the streets, of the turnings and intricacies of which they were ignorant, and among the burning houses, that were fired over their heads; but at last the conflict ended in the death of Comine, with 1200 men-at-arms, and at least five times that amount of foot-soldiers and attendants. This blow struck such terror into the Normans, that a larger force, which was sent to revenge the slain, stopped short half-way between York and Durham, and refused to proceed.

117. What are the leading particulars of William's third campaign



The English declared that good Saint Cuthbert had benumbed them with supernatural terrors, in defence of his favourite city that contained his relics and his tomb. Encouraged by this success, the people of York again besieged the garrisons of the castles, built to bridle them. The Normans burnt the city (Sept. 1069), but the people, with the aid of Danish auxiliaries, sent by King Sweyn to the help of their brethren beyond the Humber, destroyed the castles and slew the Normans almost to a man, their number being about 3000. Edgar the Atheling, who had fled to Scotland with the refugees, was again proclaimed king at York, and his sway extended over the whole country from the Humber to the Tweed. Thus England became divided into two kingdoms, with two rival and independent sovereigns. But William was never wanting in determination and speed: when he received intelligence of this disaster, he swore that he would not rest until he had massacred every Northumbrian. He advanced with such a powerful army that the confederates would not risk a battle. The Danes retired to their ships in the Humber and the English disbanded. York being still in the possession of the patriots, William marched against it and took it by assault. William now fulfilled his vow with remorseless fidelity: he dispersed his forces through the surrounding country with orders to spare neither man nor beast; to destroy the houses, corn, instruments of husbandry, and whatever might contribute to the support of life. His orders were so well executed that more than 100,000 lives were sacrificed, and the country for many years after wore the aspect of devastation. William continued his march to the Tyne and turned round at Hexham, crossing the Cumberland and Westmoreland mountains, among which his army was overtaken by a severe snow-storm. Thus beset, William lost nearly the whole of his splendid cavalry horses, while the soldiers suffered the severest privations.

118. *William's fourth campaign.—His Conquest completed, 1070.*—The brutal warfare of 1069 disgusted several of William's adventurers. Some considered themselves sufficiently enriched by the plunder they had collected; others thought that estates in England were not worth the trouble and danger with which they were to be obtained and secured; others, again, wanted to join their wives, who were constantly pressing them to return to them and their children; for it

117. Who aided the English patriots? What was the extent of the Norman devastations in the north?

118. What was the cause of the discontent in William's army at this time?



appears that few or none of them had as yet thought it safe to bring their families to England. As William's power was still very insecure, he tried to reanimate the zeal of the discontented by offers more bountiful than ever, and by promising lands, money, and honours, in abundance, the moment the conquest of England should be completed. In spite, however, of all his endeavours, several of his most distinguished generals, and many others, retired from his service and recrossed the Channel. William punished this desertion by immediately confiscating all the estates in land that they had obtained; at the same time he invited fresh adventurers and soldiers of fortune from nearly every country in Europe. He next bribed the Danish leader to return home, whose departure from the Humber took place at the very time when the English had reassembled near York, and had been joined by Edgar Atheling, while Malcolm, king of Scotland, had promised his co-operation. The treachery of the Danes having rendered success hopeless, the Earls Waltheof, Gospatric, Morcar, Edwin, and even Edgar himself, the last of the royal Saxon line, threw aside their swords in despair, and swore fealty to the Conqueror, on his swearing to allow them to enjoy their lands, and to observe the laws of Edward the Confessor. The northern war being ended, William now turned his whole force against Lancashire, Cheshire, and the country along the Welsh frontier, which provinces he, for the first time, brought under subjection. From thence he continued his march to Salisbury, where he distributed rewards among his mercenaries, a part of whom he disbanded; and from Salisbury he retired to his strong citadel or palace at Winchester, to determine upon his next measures.

119. *Misery of the English—Expatriations, 1071.*—When the whole of England from the Tweed to the Land's End, and from the English Channel to the Severn, was reduced to the Norman yoke, William determined to treat the people with severity, to indulge his own avarice and that of his followers by numerous confiscations, and to humble all who were able to make any resistance. And miserable was now the condition of the wretched English. The lands and possessions which they had inherited from a long line of illustrious ancestry were given to the counts and knights who had aided in the conquest; so that while base foreigners and men of low

118. How did he treat those who left his service? What did he do to supply their places? Relate the leading particulars of his fourth campaign.

119. To what condition were the English people reduced by the year 1071?



degree were suddenly elevated into rank and wealth, the proprietors of the soil were either killed, expelled, or reduced to the condition of tenants, and their wives and daughters became the menials of the victors. And still it was useless for the sufferers to complain, for William either would not or dared not check those oppressors, upon whose swords he still depended for the secure possession of England. Many of the dispossessed retired with their dependants into the forests, and under the name of Outlaws subsisted upon the plunder of the Normans, which had once been their own property. While all who preferred expatriation to bondage, and who still possessed the means of escape, fled to Wales, to Scotland, or the Continent; and a large body of English, under the conduct of Siward, earl of Gloucester, found their way to Constantinople, where, having offered their services to the Greek emperor Alexis, they were enrolled into his body guards, under the name of Varangis, and afterwards gained a high name for fidelity and valour.

120. *Camp of Refuge in Ely.*—*Hereward le Wake*, 1071–2. —In the year 1071, the only band of natives still arrayed against William under a military organisation, were in a Camp of Refuge among the fens of the isle of Ely. On William now faithlessly determining to seize every amnestied Englishman of rank, Edgar Atheling escaped to Scotland, Earl Edwin was overtaken in his flight and put to death, while his brother, Earl Morcar, and many others of the highest rank, succeeded in reaching the Camp of Refuge, and many escaped to the Continent. From these a chivalrous Englishman, Hereward le Wake, who had married a noble Flemish lady, not only heard of the general sufferings, but also that his father was dead, that his paternal property had become the spoil of a Norman nobleman, and that his aged mother was driven out and exposed to the insults of the domineering strangers. Hereward, at these tidings, returned to England in secret, mustered a band of his friends, and inflicted a terrible retaliation upon those who had invaded his inheritance and insulted his mother. As he had thus boldly proclaimed war against the enemy, it was necessary to continue it in self-defence; he therefore carried on a flying warfare in the neighbourhood of his residence, and defeated several strong bands of the Norman knights and noblemen that ventured to

119. To where did many expatriate themselves?

120. Where did the remnant of English patriots take refuge? How did William act to those whom he had arrested? Where was the camp of refuge formed? Who were assembled therein? What is said of Hereward le Wake?



oppose him. These deeds, together with his foreign reputation for valour, led the patriots in the islands of Ely and Thorney to invite him to become their leader. Hereward acceded to their request, and repaired to their place of refuge with his followers. He quickly displayed his strategetic ability by the capture of the fighting Norman abbot of Peterborough with 160 well-armed followers, and kept them in the fens until they were ransomed for 3000 marks. After this success, the defence of Ely was maintained for several months, and more than one defeat held the numerous enemies of the intrepid English at bay. But the small numbers and scanty resources of the patriots could only retard, without effectually preventing, the advance of the overwhelming forces of the Normans, conducted as they now were by the king in person and the choicest military science of the age, and the little island was soon so closely blockaded that no supplies could enter. The severities of famine were therefore added to the other hardships of the English; and, at last, their ruin was accomplished by the traitorous monks of Ely, to whom the want of provisions was more serious than the loss of liberty; and to free themselves from such penance, they privately offered William a safe entrance into the camp, on condition that their property should be respected. The Norman gladly closed with this treasonable proposal, and unexpectedly entered the patriot camp by a secret passage which the monks had pointed out, slew a thousand of the English, and followed up their success so quickly that the garrison was compelled to surrender. Even then Hereward refused to lay down his arms, and retreated with a few of his brave companions through marshy and dangerous paths, where the enemy did not dare to follow, and at length reached Lincoln in safety. Many of the prisoners were barbarously mutilated, after which they were suffered to wander at large in derision; others were imprisoned in various castles in England; the venerable bishops with Stigand their heroic primate, Harold's brother Ulnoth, Earl Morcar and others, who had abode by the falling fortunes of their people and found protection in the camp of Hereward, were imprisoned for life. As for the traitor monks of Ely, they also had their reward. Royal commissioners were sent to strip the convent of whatever it still possessed, and to convert the abbey lands into military benefices or fiefs, while the houseless and bereaved monks found none to pity them, either among their countrymen whom they had basely sold, or the enemy to whom they had betrayed them. The indomitable Hereward, still free and still struggling for the deliverance of England, continued his warfare against the



Normans. With his flying band, he rapidly traversed the country, falling upon the enemy when least expected, and cutting off their parties in detail. But, although many brave men, to whom the liberty of England was dearer than life, continued to repair to his standard, no army could be assembled to strike a decisive blow; and Hereward was at length convinced, that the Normans could not be vanquished. He therefore accepted the king's proffered amnesty together with the restoration of his paternal property—the lordship of Brunne in Lincolnshire. But the deceitful William only pledged his promises to entrap the redoubtable Englishman. His mansion was several times assailed; and one day, when reposing in the open air with a sword and short pike beside him, but without his coat of mail, he was suddenly set upon by a band of Normans. Without showing the least alarm, Hereward exclaimed, “Fell traitors, the king has awarded me his peace; but if you are desirous of seizing my lands, I will sell them dear.” He then drove his pike through a mailed knight, and felled fourteen other Normans before he fainted and expired. The multitude of songs made in praise of Hereward, not only by Saxon, but even Norman minstrels, prove generally that he was a hero of no common stamp. In him, the most heroic daring seems to have been combined with a circumspection that generally ensured success; with more enlarged resources, he might have become the universal rallying point, and at last the successful deliverer, of his enslaved countrymen.

121. *Hereford's Rebellion — Norfolk — Waltheof, 1074.* — Hereward having accepted an amnesty, William led a powerful army beyond the Tweed in 1072, and pursued the English who had taken shelter in Scotland, with the hope of still making head against their enemy. Malcolm Canmore was too weak to resist this invasion, and he accordingly agreed to abandon the cause of the English exiles, and to live in alliance with the Conqueror. All fear of resistance being in the next year (1073) at an end, William once more crossed the sea, to take possession of Maine which had been bequeathed to him by the late Count of that province; and, to enforce his claim, he carried with him an army of Englishmen, who considered the inhabitants of Maine as Normans, from the similarity of their language. In this idea, as soon as the resistance of the province commenced, they wasted the country with fire and sword, until they made it as wretched as England itself. But while William was warring successfully abroad, a conspiracy was forming in England, that threatened the loss of all his

120. Relate the story of Hereward. How did his death occur?



acquisitions. Roger, lord of Hereford, the youngest son of that Fitz-Osbert who had incited William to the conquest of England, had contracted a marriage for his sister with the earl of Norfolk; but as this alliance displeased the king, he sent an order from Normandy that the agreement should be annulled. But the son of Fitz-Osbert, setting this prohibition at nought, assembled at the town of Norwich a large party of Normans, Saxons, and Welsh, to grace the marriage festival. When the wine had flowed freely, the Normans branded their lord as a bastard unworthy to bear rule, and a tyrant to those who had helped him to his throne. A conspiracy was thereafter formed to deprive William of the crown, the leaders being the earls of Hereford and of Norfolk, with the Saxon Waltheof of Northumbria. But William's good fortune prevailed. The forces of the rebels were checked; and in 1054 the earl of Norfolk, the most aggrieved of the conspirators, was completely defeated at Fagadon, by Odo, bishop of Bayeux; and the conquerors cut off the right foot of every one of their prisoners, whether English or Norman. After these events, William returned to England to pass judgment upon the conspirators. Norfolk, who had fled the kingdom, was deprived of all his English possessions, and Hereford, who was a prisoner, was condemned to lose all his lands, and be confined for life in one of the royal fortresses. The fate of this person, to whose father William was so greatly indebted, is of peculiar interest. Upon an Easter, William sent the captive a splendid suit of raiment, according to the custom of the Norman court, as if he had been still free; but Roger of Hereford having examined the rich apparel, piece by piece, ordered a fire to be made, into which he threw the whole present. When the king heard how his gift had been received, 'that man,' said he, 'shall never more see the light of the sun.' The English exulted in the ruin of the son and son-in-law of William Fitz-Osbert, the man from whom the Norman invasion had chiefly originated, and who was, therefore, accounted the main source of all their national miseries. As Waltheof, the son of the great-earl Siward of Northumberland, the conqueror of Macbeth, took no part in the rising, although he had been privy to the conspiracy, he was spared for the present. But his doom was not the less certain because it was delayed; when a Danish fleet appeared upon the coast in 1074, without daring to hazard a descent, Waltheof was thereon accused of having invited it to England. It was in vain that the earl repelled the accusa-

121. What was the cause of Hereford's rebellion? Who supported him? How did it end?



tion: the charge was shamelessly supported by his Norman wife, Judith, the king's niece. He was imprisoned for nearly a year; and then, after a hurried trial, sentence of death was passed upon him at the instigation of those who coveted the three counties over which he ruled. So much, however, was he beloved by the English, that the sentence was executed in the town of Winchester, at the earliest dawn, while the inhabitants were still asleep; and the people, who were too late to save him, regarded his death as a martyrdom, and enrolled him among their saints. So perished the last chief of the English race by a Norman executioner.

122. *Prince Robert quarrels with his Father, 1074.*—“Having destroyed all resistance, and thereby secured the peace of his dominions, William now expected rest from his labours; and, finding none either willing or powerful enough to oppose him, he hoped that the end of his reign would be marked with prosperity and peace. But such is the blindness of human hope, that he found enemies where he least expected them; and such too, as served to embitter all the latter part of his life. His last troubles were excited by his own children, from the opposing of whom he could expect to reap neither glory nor gain.” On his first departure from Normandy, his hopes of winning England had been so strong, that he had promised the succession of the duchy to his eldest son Robert, surnamed Curt-hose from the shortness of his legs, to the great satisfaction of the inhabitants; but when the kingdom of England was fully won, William showed no inclination to relinquish his Norman possessions, although Robert was now grown to man's estate; and the young prince, who was brave, high-spirited, and ambitious, on demanding the promised dukedom of his father, received the homely and decisive answer, that he should not undress until he was going to bed. The disappointed Robert brooded over this answer, and he was often thereafter heard to express his jealousy of his two brothers, William and Henry, who had assiduously wrought upon the credulity and affections of the king, and consequently were the more obnoxious to Robert. A mind, therefore, so well prepared for resentment soon found or made cause for an open rupture. The princes were one day in sport together, and, in the idle petulance of play, took it into their heads to throw water over their elder bro-

122. How did William secure the peace of his dominions? Whence did the troubles arise, which rendered the remainder of his life miserable? Why was his eldest son surnamed Curt-hose? What was his character? What incident gave rise to the animosity which prevailed among his sons?



ther as he passed through the court, on leaving their apartment. Robert, all alive to suspicion, quickly turned their frolic into studied indignity: and having these jealousies further inflamed by one of his favourites, he drew his sword, and ran up stairs, with intent to take revenge. The whole castle was quickly filled with tumult, and it was not without some difficulty that the king himself was able to appease it. But he could not allay the animosity which, from that moment, ever after prevailed in his family. Robert, attended by several of his confederates, withdrew to Rouen that very night, hoping to surprise the castle, but his design was defeated by the governor: several of his partisans were taken prisoners, but he himself escaped across the Norman frontier. By the mediation of his mother, who was fondly attached to him, Robert was soon after reconciled to his father. But the discontented followers of William again rallied round the young prince, and stirred him up against the king, whom they represented as an avaricious old man, resolved to keep all within his own grasp; and instigated by these evil counsellors, Robert a second time demanded the dukedom of Normandy, when William peremptorily answered, "that he would neither resign his own patrimonial territory, nor yet a portion of his hard-won conquest." Whereon the prince finally exclaimed, "Well, I will go and become a soldier among strangers: from them, perhaps, I shall obtain the justice which my father refuses." He immediately withdrew from the royal presence, and journeyed from county to county, everywhere complaining of his wrongs. After some time had been spent in this kind of errantry, his cause was espoused by Philip of France, who established him in his castle of Gerberoy, upon the borders of Normandy. Adventurers, who lived by the lance and sword, now flocked to the prince, as they had flocked in former years to his father, while throngs of Normans, the friends of William, and even many of his own household, repaired to Gerberoy, and swore allegiance to Robert. This act of desertion cut the Conqueror to the heart, and aggravated the guilt of his son. "The traitor!" he exclaimed—"he has seduced my men—my own scholars, whom I taught to fight; whom I fed with my bread, and clothed with knightly armour."

123. *Revolt of prince Robert, 1077.*—"The flame being thus kindled, the popular character of the prince, and a sympathy of manners, engaged all the young nobility of Normandy and Maine, as well as of Anjou and Brittany, to espouse his

122. Relate the conduct of Robert.

123. Who assisted Robert against his father?



quarrel: even his mother, it is said, supported him by secret remittances of money, and aided him in this obstinate resistance by private encouragement." The most active measures were now required, to save Normandy from falling into the hands of Robert and the French king; but amidst the general treachery that prevailed, William was obliged to raise an English army, to make war upon his rebellious son. He crossed the Channel with his usual activity, and invested the castle of Gerberoy; but the siege was protracted, in consequence of the stubborn resistance of the garrison, and many of his soldiers were killed in various sorties. Upon one of these occasions an incident occurred illustrative of the romantic character of the age. Robert, who was a gallant knight, happened, in the heat of conflict, to engage a warrior of the other party. Both combatants were equally strong and determined, and both completely concealed in the armour which they wore; but after a fierce combat the prince wounded and unhorsed his antagonist. The fallen knight shouted to his companions for aid, when Robert discovered from the voice, that it was his father he had overthrown. He dismounted immediately, raised his parent, and craved pardon upon his knees, with tears, at the same time giving him his own horse; but William, unmoved by this penitence, discharged a bitter curse upon his son's head, and rode off. The king was obliged to raise the siege and retire to Rouen. Here however his wife, his friends, and the Norman bishops, laboured to procure a reconciliation between him and the prince, and after long importunity he gave a reluctant assent. Robert was admitted into the royal presence, where he again asked pardon upon his knees, after which he accompanied the king to England. But no return of affection was manifested upon the part of the iron-hearted William; and Robert, fearing for his life or liberty, fled for the third time, followed by the curses of his father, whom he never saw again.

124. *Family dissensions and afflictions.*—Domestic calamities still continued to embitter the last years of the Conqueror, notwithstanding the absence of his eldest son. William's uterine brother Odo bishop of Bayeux, who had fought so bravely at the battle of Hastings, and aided the work of the conquest, had been made earl of Kent and the most powerful subject in England; but not content with this, he aspired at a separate dominion, by intriguing for the pope-dom. The king, who detected this conspiracy, arrested the

123. What happened in Maine? By whom was it secretly encouraged and assisted? What incident happened at the siege of Gerberoy?

124. What domestic afflictions embittered William's last years?



warlike prelate, and imprisoned him in a dungeon in Normandy (1082). Shortly after this affair, Matilda, the wife of the Conqueror, to whom he was fondly attached, paid the debt of nature; and his sense of this bereavement was exhibited by increasing moroseness of temper, and deeper distrust of his captains and counsellors. In addition, his two youngest sons, William and Henry, became jealous of each other, and harassed their father about the succession. But the most tragical domestic affliction which William sustained, arose from one of his worst acts of oppression. Like the other rough, unlearned potentates of the period, he was so addicted to hunting, that he was said, by the English, to love the wild beasts of the chase as if he had been their father; and to enjoy this sport in perfection, he had dispeopled and laid waste thirty-six parishes in Hampshire for the space of thirty miles together, to enlarge an adjoining forest which he converted into a hunting ground and stocked with all kinds of game. In this place, afterwards called the New Forest, his second son, Richard, while engaged in hunting, was gored to death by a stag. The English exulted in this incident, as the first of a series of judgments inflicted in the same place upon the descendants of the tyrant, for his wanton act of depopulation.

125. *Last expedition and death of William, 1087.*—The close of William's career was now at hand. The country called Vexin, situated between the Epte and the Oise, was ground equally claimed by Philip of France and the king of England; and the latter, who had crossed the sea with a large army, at the end of the year 1086, for the recovery of the disputed territory, first tried the effect of a negotiation with his rival. "During the course of the treaty, William's displeasure was not a little increased by the account he received of some railleries which that monarch had thrown out against him. It seems that William, who was become corpulent, had been detained in bed some time by sickness: and Philip was heard to say, That he only lay-in of a big belly. This joke so provoked the English monarch, that he sent him word, he should soon be up, and would at his churching, present him such a number of tapers, as would set the kingdom of France in a flame. To perform this promise, he levied a strong army, and entering the Isle of France, destroyed and burned all the villages and houses without opposition, and took the town of Mantes, which he reduced to ashes. But the progress of

124. What is said of his passion for hunting?

125. Relate the sarcastic remark of Philip, king of France, and the answer of William.



these hostilities was stopped by an accident which shortly after put an end to William's life. His horse chancing to place his fore-feet on some hot ashes, plunged so violently, that the rider was thrown forward, and bruised upon the pommel of the saddle to such a degree, that he suffered a relapse, of which he died at a little village near Rouen, on the 9th of September, 1087, in the sixty-first year of his age and the twenty-first of his reign." He was buried at Caen in the monastery of which he was the founder. By his wife Matilda, daughter of the earl of Flanders, he left three sons, Robert, William, and Henry; and five daughters, the fourth of whom was married to earl Stephen of Blois by whom she had the usurper Stephen.

126. *Character of William I.*—It cannot be doubted, that William surpassed all his contemporary rulers in a capacity for command, in war certainly, and probably also in peace. Sagacity, circumspection, foresight, courage, both in forming plans and facing dangers, insight into character, ascendancy over men's minds; all these qualities he doubtless possessed in a very high degree. All that can be said in extenuation of his perfidy and cruelty is, that he did not so far exceed chiefs of that age in these detestable qualities as he unquestionably surpassed them in ability and vigour. It may be added, he was also a devout man, according to the practice in that age; so that, however busied he might be with deeds of fraud and massacre, he endowed monasteries, and heard mass every morning. But the energetic stand which he made against papal encroachment, was one of the few events in his history that merited the gratitude of England. Hildebrand, afterwards Gregory VII., one of the ablest of those who have filled the chair of St. Peter, imagined, that as the pope had sanctioned the Norman invasion, therefore England should be considered a fief of the Holy See. In this idea, he demanded of William, not only the payment of Peter's pence,\* but also feudal homage for the possession of the kingdom. The answer of William, at a time when kings and emperors were ready to hold the papal stirrup, was stern and decisive. The tax he was ready to pay, because it had been of long establishment; but as for the homage, no king of England had ever rendered it, and therefore he would not (1073). This

125. By what accident did William lose his life? What family survived him?

126. What was William's general character? What is said of his perfidy and cruelty? What of his religion? What did he concede to the pope, and what refuse?

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\* See note, page 47.



reply formed so inspiring an example to future English sovereigns, that they held out against this papal tyranny when other monarchs had succumbed, and thereby they paved the way for more perfect future religious freedom.

127. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the Text.*—

(1). The first most important change in the English law was the separation of the ecclesiastical courts from the civil, in order that all ecclesiastical persons and causes should be subject to ecclesiastical jurisdiction only; which jurisdiction was supposed to be immediately in the pope, and delegated from him to his inferior tribunals.

(2). The second alteration was the vesting the sole property of all game in the king alone; and that no man was entitled to disturb the deer, hares, partridges, and such other kinds as were specially reserved for the royal amusement, without express licence from the king by a grant of chase or free-warren. From this root has sprung a bastard-slip, known by the name of the game-law, now arrived to and wantoning in its highest vigour, the prolific parent of murders, violences, and rural demoralization.

(3). A third alteration in the law was the narrowing the remedial influence of the county courts, the great seats of Saxon justice, and extending the *original* jurisdiction of the king's justiciaries to all kinds of causes, arising in all parts of the kingdom. To this end the king's court, with all its multifarious authority, was erected; and a capital justiciary appointed, with powers so large and boundless, that he became formidable to the crown itself, and a tyrant to the people. All proceedings in this court were carried on in the Norman language, because none of William's justiciaries understood English, thereby exhibiting a subjugation more offensive than was ever imposed upon a conquered people.

(4). A fourth innovation in the law was the abolition of trial by jury and the substitution of trial by combat or battle, for the decision of all civil and criminal questions of fact in the last resort. From this root sprang duelling, a remnant of savage life which still lingers in this country.

(5). The consciences of men were also subjugated by the importation from Rome for the first time of the whole *farrago* of superstitious novelties, which had been engendered by the blindness and corruptions of the times, between the first mission of the monk Augustin and the Norman conquest (597-1060); such as transubstantiation, purgatory, communion in one kind, and the worship of saints and images; not forgetting the universal supremacy and dogmatical infallibility of the bishop for the time being of Rome.

(6). As rural pleasures and manly recreations were restrained by the forest laws, so social intercourse and amusement were repressed in cities and towns by all persons being obliged to disperse, and fire and candle to be extinguished by eight at night, at the sound of the melancholy *curfew*.

(7). The whole soil of England was made the property of the state, from which disposition flowed the future fundamental constitutional maxim that no man doth, or can possess any land therein, but as immediately or indirectly derived from the king, in his capacity of chief of the state.

(8). It is generally said that the Feudal System, the holding of land from the state absolutely and hereditarily subject to *certain* con-



ditions, was first brought into England and established by the Conqueror; but there is no evidence that any of his grants of land were in the nature of absolute gifts and *certain* conditions; every grant was merely held at the pleasure of the king, as a reward for past military or other services, and as pay for their continuous exercise. Past services not being generally considered when grantees retired from the king's service, upon which their lands escheated to the state, just as an ecclesiastic gives up the usufruct of his benefice on resigning his spiritual duties. It seems therefore certain that the Feudal System, as giving any legal right whatever to the continuous possession of estates in persons and in their heirs, was not established by the Conqueror.

(9). The Conqueror's territorial system had immediately for its object the preservation of his conquest by the keeping up and the maintaining a standing army picketed over the whole country, in such manner that each company, regiment, and brigade could quickly assemble perfectly organised for active warfare. England was militarily divided into 60,215 benefices or knight's fees, whereon was required to be stationed a well-armed cavalry soldier with a serviceable horse at all times ready to take the field whenever required. The confiscated estates of the English were granted *immediately* from the king to about 1500 of his principal officers who were called his tenants-in-chief, his barons, nobles, or lords. From such grants these lords had to assign benefices to the officers and soldiers under their command, each company, regiment, and brigade being located as far as possible in continuous manors. The territorial system of the Conqueror was in many respects analogous to that which still prevails in some provinces of Turkey; where a pasha or general has a territory granted to him wherein he is required to keep up a military force *certain* in number and to maintain it in active service for as long as it is needed by the state, and whatever surplus of revenue remains therefrom becomes his own—the pashalic of Egypt as now administered is an illustration.

(10). In 1073, the Conqueror obtained the permission of the pope to displace all dignified ecclesiastics of English birth, and to fill their offices with foreigners so as to enable him to enrich the Norman priests and monks and to bind them to his interest. He made the Italian Lanfranc archbishop of Canterbury and primate of all England, that the church like the state might be under one head.

(11). In 1080 was commenced the general territorial survey of England for the registration of every man's possessions, and the quantity and value of his chattels, in each manor. In six years this survey was completed in thirty-five counties, the non-surveyed being Durham, Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. The records of this survey formed the still extant Domesday-book, so called from its details being taken as the *doom* or judgment on all matters therein. This famous register was revised by king William and confirmed in a great assembly of all the Norman landholders held at Salisbury in 1086, when each beneficiary was required *to do homage* and *to swear fealty* to king William for the lands therein registered to him, whether held immediately or mediately of him. Homage and fealty were the public acknowledgment and oath of loyalty made by tenants of land to their superior or lord when put in possession. The short oath was thus expressed:—"From this hour forward I become your liege-man in life and in limb, to bear you honour and faith at all times, for the land which I hold of you. So help me God."



## WILLIAM II., SURNAMED RUFUS.

Began to reign Sept. 9th, 1087;—died August 2nd, 1100.

128. *Usurpation of William II.*—Robert, as eldest son of the Conqueror, claimed the crown of England; but his next brother William, surnamed Rufus from the redness of his hair, gained it by his activity in hurrying over from Rouen to England, and by the aid of his early tutor archbishop Lanfranc, who crowned him in Winchester Cathedral on the 26th of September, the seventeenth day after his father's death in Normandy. But the barons, nearly all of whom retained their ancient fiefs in Normandy, were dissatisfied that the two countries were not under the same sceptre. "A powerful conspiracy was therefore formed against William; and Odo, the late king's brother, undertook to conduct it to maturity. William, sensible of the danger that threatened him, endeavoured to gain the affections of the native English, whom he prevailed upon, by promises of future good treatment, and preference in the distribution of his favours, to espouse his interests. He was soon, therefore, in the field; and, at the head of 30,000 Englishmen and his Norman cavalry, showed himself in readiness to oppose all who should dispute his pretensions. In the meantime, Robert, instead of employing his money in levies, to support his friends in England, squandered it away in idle expenses and unmerited benefits, so that he procrastinated his departure till the opportunity was lost; while William exerted himself with incredible activity to dissipate the confederacy before his brother could arrive. Nor was this difficult to effect: the conspirators had, in consequence of Robert's assurances, taken possession of the maritime city of Rochester, which they fortified; but the appearance of the king soon induced them to implore his mercy. He granted them their lives, but confiscated all their estates, and banished them the kingdom." Thus terminated the contest between the two brothers for the succession; and with it the compact between Rufus and his English subjects. The concessions made to them were revoked, and they were again treated with distrust and severity.

128. In what year did the reign of William II. begin, and end? Why was he called Rufus? By what means did he gain the crown? Did he succeed to the whole of his father's possessions? Who succeeded to the other part? What was the consequence of that division? Did the two brothers act upon the same plan? How did William act when he had secured the crown?



129. *Fraternal dissensions, 1088-9.*—"A new breach quickly followed between the brothers, in which Rufus found means to encroach still farther upon Robert's possessions." The last government of Robert had reduced Normandy to such a state of anarchy, that William of England thought it a favourable opportunity of revenging himself for the rebellion of his uncle, bishop Odo. He therefore invaded Normandy, captured several towns, but failed in obtaining possession of Rouen (1088). He however renewed his invasion in the following year; but a reconciliation was effected by the mediation of the French king, whom he had bribed, by which William retained the fortresses in his possession, and obtained the renunciation of all Robert's claims to the throne of England. The sons of the Conqueror were not united in love. No sooner were Robert and William reconciled, than their united forces despoiled their younger brother Henry of all the territory he possessed and compelled him to seek safety in exile.

130. *William obtains Normandy, 1096.*—"But the memory of these transient broils and the unsuccessful conspiracy headed by Robert Mowbray, the powerful earl of Northumberland, were now totally eclipsed by one of the most noted enterprises that ever adorned the annals of nations, or excited the attention of mankind: I mean the Crusades, which were now first projected. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens in Picardy, was a man of great zeal, courage, and piety. He had made a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre at Jerusalem, and beheld, with indignation, the cruel manner in which the Christians were treated by the Mahometans, who were in possession of that place. He preached the Crusade over Europe by the permission of pope Urban II.; and men of all ranks flew to arms with the utmost alacrity, to rescue the Holy Land from the infidels; and each bore the sign of the cross upon their right shoulder, as a mark of their devotion to the cause. In the midst of this universal ardour, that was diffused over Europe, men were not entirely forgetful of their temporal interests; for some, hoping for a more magnificent settlement in the soft regions of Asia, sold their European property for whatever they could obtain, contented with receiving anything for what they were predetermined to relinquish. Among the princes who felt and acknowledged this general spirit of enterprise, was duke Robert of Normandy.

129. Why did William invade Normandy? What was the result? How did Robert and William treat their brother Henry?

130. What noted enterprise excited general attention at that time? Who first suggested the idea of the Crusades?



The Crusade was entirely adapted to his inclinations and his circumstances; he was brave, zealous, and covetous of glory, poor, harassed by insurrections, and, what was more than all, naturally fond of change. In order, therefore, to supply money to defray the necessary charges of so expensive an undertaking, he offered to mortgage his dukedom in Normandy for five years to his brother Rufus, for ten thousand marks." The proposal was accepted, and the sum was raised by fleecing his poor subjects. Soon after raising the money, duke Robert departed for Palestine, and William sailed to take possession of Normandy and Maine. "But though the king's territories were greatly increased, they added but little to his real power, as his new subjects were composed of men of independent spirits, more ready to dispute than to obey his commands. Many were the revolts and insurrections which he was obliged to quell in person; and, no sooner was one conspiracy suppressed, than another rose to give him fresh disquietude."

131. *Death of William II.*—"However, Rufus proceeded, careless of approbation or censure; and only intent upon extending his dominions, either by purchase or conquest. The earl of Poitiers and Guienne, inflamed with a desire of going upon the Crusade, had gathered an immense multitude for that expedition, but wanted money to forward his preparations. He had recourse, therefore, to Rufus, and offered to mortgage all his dominions, without much considering what would become of his unhappy subjects that he thus disposed of. The king accepted this offer with his usual avidity, and had prepared a fleet and an army, in order to take possession of the rich provinces thus consigned to his trust. But an accident put an end to all his ambitious projects; he was shot by an arrow that Sir Walter Tyrrel discharged at a deer in the New Forest, near the present village of Minestead, which, glancing from a tree, struck the king to the heart. He dropt dead instantaneously; while the innocent author of his death, terrified at the accident, put spurs to his horse, hastened to the sea-shore, embarked for France, and joined the Crusade that was then setting out for Jerusalem." The king's brother Henry and the courtiers who were of the royal party dispersed at the earliest report of his death to look after their own interests, not one of them caring to render the last sad honours to their master. Late in the evening the royal corpse

130. What advantages did William reap from the active part which his brother took in the first Crusade?

131. Why did the earl of Poitiers and Guienne mortgage his dominions to Rufus? What accident deprived William of life?



was found where it fell by a charcoal-burner named Parkess, who drove it in his cart to Winchester, where it was respectfully buried by the monks in the centre of the cathedral choir. William II. died unmarried and without issue on the 2nd of August, 1100, in the fortieth year of his age, having reigned almost thirteen years.

132. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the Text:—*

(1). In 1100 the sea burst over the low land between the North and the South Foreland, formerly the property of earl Godwin of Kent, and formed the Godwin Sands and the channel called the Downs.

(2). The government of William II. was an union of rapacity and prodigality. The kingdom was plundered to extort the means of ministering to his vices and to enrich his heartless favourites. It was an usual practice with him, when bishoprics and abbacies became vacant, to seize all their temporalities and to farm them out to his favourites, or to those who made him the highest offer; and when he was led to fill the vacancy, he exacted considerable sums from those who were appointed.

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### HENRY I., SURNAMED BEAUCLERC.\*

Began to reign August 5th, 1100;—died Dec. 2nd, 1135.

133. *Usurpation of Henry I.*—By priority of birth, duke Robert of Normandy ought to have succeeded to the throne on the death of his next brother William; but he was a second time superseded, on account of his absence with the crusaders, by his youngest brother Henry who was present at the death of Rufus in the New Forest. “Henry took the earliest advantage of the occasion, and arrived at Winchester before his brother’s corpse, resolved to secure the royal treasure, which he knew to be the best assistant in seconding his aims. The barons, as well as the people, acquiesced in a claim which they were unprovided to resist, and yielded obedience, from the fears of immediate danger.” Henry was then proclaimed king, and was crowned in Westminster Abbey three days after the death of Rufus. “To ingratiate himself with the people, Henry expelled from court all the ministers of his brother’s debauchery and arbitrary power.” He also abolished his tyrannical edicts, forgave all fines due to the

133. In what year did Henry I. ascend the throne of England? Why was he called Beauclerc? In what degree of relationship did he stand to the late king? What induced the nation to acknowledge his claim?

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\* Henry was surnamed Beauclerc, from his scholarship, which was remarkable at a period when few princes could sign their own names.



exchequer, and promised to re-establish the laws of Edward the Confessor. "One thing only remained to confirm his claims without danger of a rival. The English remembered their Saxon monarchs with gratitude, and beheld them excluded the throne with regret. There still remained some of the descendants of the favourite line; and, among others, Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling; which lady, having declined all pretensions to royalty, was bred up in a convent, and had actually taken the veil. Upon her Henry first fixed his eyes as a proper consort, by whose means the long breach between the Saxon and Norman interest would be finally united. It only remained to get over the scruple of her being a nun; but this a council, devoted to his interests, readily admitted; and Matilda being pronounced free to marry, the nuptials were celebrated with great pomp and solemnity. At this unfavourable juncture Robert returned from abroad, and, after taking possession of his native dominions, laid his claim to the crown of England," and even landed at Portsmouth (1101); but proposals for an accommodation being made, it was stipulated, that Robert "should resign his pretensions to England [for the annual payment to him of 3000 marks and the cession of several castles in Normandy]; and that if either of the princes died without issue, the other should succeed to his dominions. This treaty being ratified, the armies on each side were disbanded; and Robert, having lived two months in the utmost harmony with his brother, returned in peace to his own dominions." But he was no sooner gone than the unscrupulous Henry began to subject the duke's late partizans to outlawry and confiscation. The generous and thoughtless Robert thereon came over to intercede for them, when he found that he himself was a captive, and was obliged to ransom himself, by resigning his annuity of 3000 marks.

134. *Duke Robert's Captivity and Death, 1106-34.*—"But Robert's indiscretion soon rendered him unfit to govern any state; he was totally averse to business, and only studious of the more splendid amusements or employments of life. His servants pillaged him without compunction; and he is described as lying whole days abed for want of clothes, of which they had robbed him. His subjects were treated still more deplorably; for being under the command of petty and rapa-

133. What method did he adopt to gain the favour of the people? How did he reconcile the nation to the Norman succession? On what conditions did his eldest brother resign his pretensions to England?

134. Describe the character of Robert.



cious tyrants, who plundered them without mercy, the whole country was become a scene of violence and depredation. It was in this miserable exigence, that the Normans at length had recourse to Henry, from whose wise administration of his own dominions they expected a similitude of prosperity, should he take the reins of theirs. Henry very readily promised to redress their grievances, as he knew it would be the direct method to second his own ambition. The year ensuing, therefore, he landed in Normandy with a strong army, took some of the principal towns; and a battle ensuing before the walls of Tinchebray, Robert's forces were totally overthrown, and he himself taken prisoner, with near 10,000 of his men, and all the considerable barons who had adhered to his misfortunes (1106). This victory was followed by the final reduction of Normandy; while Henry returned in triumph to England, leading with him his captive brother, who, after a life of bravery, generosity, and truth, now found himself not only deprived of his patrimony and his friends, but also his freedom.\* Henry, unmindful of his brother's former magnanimity with regard to him, detained him a prisoner during the remainder of his life, which was no less than 28 years; and he died in the castle of Cardiff, in Glamorganshire, at the age of 80, in 1134. It is even said by some, that he was deprived of his sight by a red-hot copper bason applied to his eyes; while his brother attempted to stifle the reproaches of his conscience, by founding the abbey of Reading, which was then considered as a sufficient atonement for every degree of barbarity."

135. *Prince William drowned at Sea, 1120.*—"Fortune now seemed to smile upon Henry, and promise a long succession of felicity. He was in peaceable possession of two powerful states, and had a son, who was acknowledged undisputed heir, arrived at his eighteenth year, whom he loved most tenderly. His daughter Matilda was also married to the Emperor

134. What was the result of the first engagement between Robert and Henry? How did Henry requite his brother's kindness? Why did he found the abbey of Reading?

135. From what circumstance was Henry justified in looking forward to a long succession of felicity?

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\* At this time, duke Robert had an only son named William, then very young, whom Henry strove to get into his power; but he was conveyed to the court of Louis VI., who brought him up in his palace. He afterwards gave him his sister-in-law in marriage, and put him in possession of the earldom of Flanders, as heir of his grandmother Matilda, wife of the Conqueror, William Fitz. William then became for several years a formidable rival to his uncle in Normandy. His early death, in 1128, however, relieved Henry of a formidable adversary.



Henry V. of Germany, and she had been sent to that court, while yet but eight years old, for her education. All his prospects, however, were at once clouded by unforeseen misfortunes and accidents, which tintured his remaining years with misery. The king, from the facility with which he usurped the crown, dreading that his family might be subverted with the same ease, took care to have his son recognised as his successor by the states of England, and carried him over to Normandy to receive the homage of the barons of that duchy. After performing this requisite ceremony, Henry, returning triumphantly to England, brought with him a numerous retinue of the chief nobility, who seemed to share in his successes. In one of the vessels of the fleet, his son and several young noblemen, the companions of his pleasures, went together, to render the passage more agreeable. The king set sail from Harfleur in December 1120, and was soon carried by a fair wind out of sight of land. The prince was detained by some accident; and his sailors, as well as their captain, Fitz-Stephen, having spent the interval in drinking, became so disordered, that they ran the ship upon a rock, and immediately it was dashed to pieces. The prince was put into the boat, and might have escaped, had he not been called back by the cries of Maude, his natural sister. He was at first conveyed out of danger himself, but could not leave a person so dear to perish without an effort to save her. He therefore prevailed upon the sailors to row back and take her in. The approach of the boat giving several others who had been left upon the wreck the hope of saving their lives, numbers leaped in, and the whole went to the bottom. Above a hundred and forty young noblemen, of the principal families of England and Normandy, were lost on this occasion. A butcher of Rouen was the only person on board who escaped; he clung to the mast, and was taken up the next morning by some fishermen. Fitz-Stephen, the captain, while the butcher was thus buffeting the waves for his life, swam up to him, and enquired if the prince was yet living; when being told that he had perished, "Then I will not outlive him," said the captain, and immediately sunk to the bottom. The shrieks of these unfortunate people were heard from the shore, and the noise even reached the king's ship, but the cause was then unknown. Henry entertained hopes for three days, that his son had put into some distant port in England; but when certain intelligence of the calamity was

135. With what family misfortune was he visited? What effect had it upon the king?



brought to him, he fainted away, and was never seen to smile from that moment to the day of his death."

136. *The Crown settled on Maud*, 1127.—Henry, being a widower, and having lost his only legitimate son, espoused a young wife; but as she bore him no children, after a delay of three years, he determined to settle the crown on the dowager-empress Matilda or Maud, his daughter by his first wife "the good queen Maud." On Christmas-day in the year 1126, a great assembly of prelates and barons was held in Windsor Castle, when Matilda was acknowledged next heir to the throne, if her father died without legitimate male issue. At the following Whitsuntide, Henry married his heiress at Rouen to Geoffry earl of Anjou, surnamed Plantagenet, from his custom of wearing a sprig of flowering broom in his cap like a feather. This alliance caused much discontent among the English barons, as they had not been consulted; but Henry heeded not their murmurs, and congratulated himself on having united the interests of the house of Anjou with those of his own. Their union was unhappy. Presuming on the imperial rank she had held, and being naturally of a proud, imperious temper, Matilda soon quarrelled with her husband: a separation took place. After a time a reconciliation was patched up, and Matilda returned to her husband; but jars and discord were thereafter constantly arising between them. For six years, Henry was disappointed in his desire to become a grandfather. In 1133, however, Matilda bore a son, who was named Henry. Soon after the birth of this grandson the king again convoked the barons of England and Normandy, and made them recognise as his successors, his daughter after him, and her children *after her*. Although Henry had never considered an oath binding on himself, he could not exact oaths enough from others. His nobles, being accustomed to the taking of oaths which they meant to break, swore fealty afresh, not only to Matilda, and to her infant son, but to any progeny born of her. The ex-empress gave birth to two more princes, Geoffry and William, in the two following years; but even a growing family failed to endear her husband to her: she quarrelled with him on all possible occasions; and as her father took her part, she kept his mind almost constantly occupied with their dissensions.

137. *Death and Character of Henry I.*—The four last years

136. Whom did Henry name as his successor? Who was Maud's second husband? Why was he surnamed Plantagenet? Did they live happily together? What family had Maud?



of Henry's life were spent on the Continent in preserving his dominions and in patching up the ever-occurring quarrels between his only legitimate child and her husband. He died in his son-in-law's castle of Lyon, near Roan on the Loire, on the 2nd of December, 1135, from eating too plentifully of lampreys, a dish he was particularly fond of, in the sixty-seventh year of his age and the thirty-fifth of his reign, leaving by will his daughter Matilda heiress of all his dominions. His body was sent to England and interred in Reading Abbey, his stone and mortar sin-offering. The best circumstances attending Henry's long reign were the peace he maintained in England, and the respect for the laws which his vigorous government imposed. His natural abilities were excellent and were developed by a careful education, which however did little to restrain his selfishness, faithlessness, cruelty, and revenge. He set at nought his charters of privileges, and violated his promises to his people without shame; and during his reign neither virtue nor merit could advance an Englishman.

138. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). Immediately on his accession, Henry I. purchased the acquiescence of the barons in his usurpation, by conceding the privileges which had been refused to them\* by William II. It was by his Charter of Privileges then given that the Feudal System was really established in England in nearly every respect as it existed in the subsequent reigns. That lands were held until then by the barons and others at the pleasure of the crown, is evident from the commencing text of this charter:—"Because the kingdom hath been oppressed by unjust exactions, for the honour of God, and the love which I have towards you all, I have firstly set at liberty the holy church of God, so that I will neither sell, nor let out to farm, nor upon the death of any archbishop, or bishop, or abbot, will I take anything from the lordship of the church or its tenants until a successor shall have been admitted to it. And I also take away all evil customs with which the kingdom of England has been unjustly oppressed, and which are here in part set down. If any of my earls, or barons, or others who hold (lands) of me, shall die, his heir shall not redeem the estate as *he was wont to do in the time of my brother*; but shall relieve it by a just and lawfull relief. In like manner shall the tenants of my barons relieve their lands of their lords by a just and lawfull relief," &c., &c. In short, the charter of Henry I. relates the greater part of those privileges which Magna Charta more authoritatively confirmed.

(2). It is from this reign that we may date the origin of romance. Geoffry of Monmouth wrote a romantic history of England, embel-

137. What was the cause of Henry's death? What was his character?

\* It is important to keep in mind that the Charters of Privilege, whether granted by Henry I. or his successors, were concessions for the sole benefit of the landocracy; and that it was only indirectly that the commonalty of England were bettered, the privileges successively conceded being made general maxims of law.



lished with numerous tales of prince Arthur and his knights, borrowed from the songs of the ancient Britons. Charlemagne and his Peers, and other works of a similar kind, but yet more romantic, soon followed, containing histories of giants, dragons, enchantments, ladies confined in castles and delivered by their knights. These works were written in the Gallic idiom, which was a corruption of the language of Rome, and thence these compositions were called romances.

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### STEPHEN.

Began to reign Dec. 27th, 1135; died Oct. 25th, 1154.

139. *Usurpation of Stephen.*—"No sooner was Henry I. known to be dead than Stephen, third surviving son of the king's sister Adela and the count of Blois, conscious of his own power and influence, resolved to secure to himself the possession of what he so long desired. He speedily hastened from Normandy, and arriving at London, was immediately saluted king by all the lower ranks of people. Being thus secure of the people, his next step was to gain over the clergy; and, for that purpose, his brother, the Bishop of Winchester, exerted all his influence among them with good success." The prelates declared that the oaths taken to give the kingdom to Matilda were not binding, as she had been given in marriage without the consent of themselves and of the barons. It was also represented as shameful in noble knights to be ruled by a woman. These arguments prevailed, and Stephen was crowned in Westminster Abbey by the Archbishop of Canterbury on the 26th of December, being St. Stephen's Day, in the year 1135. "Thus was Stephen made king by one of those speedy revolutions which ever mark the barbarity of a state in which they are customary." In the next year the chiefs of Normandy chose him for their sovereign, which stripped Matilda of all her hereditary rights.

140. *Stephen's first Charter of Liberties, 1136.*—"The first acts of a usurper are always popular. Stephen, in order to secure his throne, issued shortly after his coronation a charter, granting several privileges to the different orders of the state. To the nobility, a permission to hunt in their own forests; to the clergy, a speedy filling of all vacant benefices; and to the people, a restoration of the laws of Edward the Confessor. To fix himself still more securely, he took possession of the royal treasures at Winchester, and had his title ratified by Pope Innocent II. with a part of the money." The early

139. In what year did Stephen begin to reign? Of whom was he a son? To whom was he indebted for gaining over the prelates to his interest? What state of society do sudden revolutions indicate?

140. What steps did Stephen take to render himself popular?



days of the new reign were peaceful and happy—at least for the Norman race. Stephen was prodigal and magnificent: he gave largely to those about him from the treasure which the Conqueror had amassed, and his two successors had increased. He made numerous grants of estates, which were hitherto crown lands and formed the royal domains. He created earls and provincial governors over districts, which had until then been administered for the king's sole profit. Geoffry of Anjou, the husband of Matilda, engaged to remain at peace for an annual pension of 5000 marks; and even her bastard brother, earl Robert of Gloucester, took the oaths of homage and allegiance to Stephen.

141. *Irruption of the Scots—Battle of the Standard, 1138.*—During the first year of Stephen, he was disturbed only by the revolt of earl Baldwin of Exeter, and a Scottish irruption headed by king David I. in support of his niece Matilda. In the next year, 1138, the Scots again entered England, in which invasion was fought the famous battle of the Standard at Cuton Moor near Northallerton: a powerful army was raised by the barons of the north of England to repel them, and on this occasion there was such a feeling of unanimity, in consequence of the atrocity committed by the Scots in the previous year, that Normans and English marched side by side with equal alacrity. To give also the character of a holy war to this resistance, a standard, formed of a mast garnished with sacred banners, and surmounted by a casket containing a consecrated host, was erected upon a four-wheeled carriage, to move with the English army, while a band of brave knights undertook its defence, under a solemn vow to perish rather than desert their charge. This military ensign was common in Italy during the middle ages, under the name of the *Caroccio*; and it served not only to stimulate the soldiery with religious enthusiasm during the fight, but to form a rallying point for a tumultuary army should it be thrown into confusion. Nothing but a similar spirit of unanimity could have ensured success to the Scots; but among the motley group of Scots, Normans, Saxons, Welsh, and Picts or Galwegians, such a feeling could not have been expected, so that dissensions arose among them on the evening before the battle, about the honour of leading the van. King David was obliged to silence the contention, by yielding the van to the Galwegians. On the next morning, which was the 22nd of August, both armies drew up, the English forming a compact mass, with their cavalry in the rear, while the Scots advanced





in four lines, with the men of Galloway in front. The latter rushed on like a tempest, shouting 'Albanigh! Albanigh!' and staggered the mass of spearmen, upon whom they threw themselves with great fury; but here the archery of the native English was terribly brought to bear, for the first time, against the naked Galwegians, who were powerless against these deadly discharges. The battle was successfully renewed by the Scots men-at-arms, when a cry arose among the ranks that king David had fallen. It was in vain that he threw off his helmet, and galloped to and fro, to show himself and to rally them: the panic was fatal to such a tumultuary army, and the king was swept along with the fugitives. In this battle the Scots lost nearly half their army. As it was, Stephen, who was then engaged in the pacification of Normandy, consented, for the sake of peace, to surrender to the Scots the whole earldom of Northumberland, except the castles of Newcastle and Bainborough, in the full hope however of resuming it in more tranquil times.

142. *Battle of Lincoln—Matilda crowned, 1141.*—While these troubles were going on, Matilda's bastard brother Robert, now earl of Gloucester by marriage with the heiress of the Norman Fitz-Hamon, and the most conspicuous of his time in peace and war, prepared to assert the legitimate claims of his sister. Matilda thereon landed upon the coast of Sussex, in September, 1139, "with a retinue amounting to no more than one hundred and forty knights, who immediately took possession of Arundel Castle; but the nature of her claim soon increased the number of her partisans, and her forces every day seemed to gain ground upon those of her antagonist. Meantime, Stephen, being assured of her arrival, flew to besiege Arundel Castle, where she had taken refuge, and where she was protected by the queen dowager, who secretly favoured her pretensions. This fortress was too feeble to promise a long defence; and would have been soon taken, had it not been represented to the king, that, as it was a castle belonging to the queen dowager, it would be an infringement on the respect due to her to attempt taking it by force. There was a spirit of generosity mixed with the rudeness of the times that unaccountably prevailed in many transactions. Stephen permitted Matilda to come forth in safety, and had her conveyed with security to Bristol, another fortress equally strong with that from whence he permitted her to

142. Who claimed the crown in legitimate right? Who was Matilda? Who assisted her on her landing in England? Did the people seem to acknowledge her claims? In what instance did Stephen act with generosity towards her?



retire. It would be tedious to relate the various skirmishes on either side, in pursuance of their respective pretensions; it will suffice to say, that Matilda's forces increased every day, while her antagonist seemed every hour to become weaker; and a victory, gained by the queen near Lincoln in February, 1141, which made Stephen a captive, threw him from the throne and exalted Matilda in his room. Matilda was then crowned at Winchester with all imaginable solemnity."

143. *Matilda deposed.*—"Matilda, however, was unfit for government. She affected to treat the nobility with a degree of disdain, to which they had long been unaccustomed; so that the fickle nation once more began to pity their deposed king, and to repent the steps they had taken in her favour. His brother, the Bishop of Winchester, was not remiss in fomenting these discontents; and when he found the people ripe for a tumult, detached a party of his friends and vassals to block up the city of London, where the queen then resided. At the same time, measures were taken to instigate the Londoners to revolt, and to seize her person. Matilda, having timely notice of this conspiracy, fled to Winchester, whither the bishop, still her secret enemy, followed her, watching an opportunity to ruin her cause. His party was soon sufficiently strong to bid the queen open defiance, and to besiege her in the very place where she first received his benediction. There she continued for some time, but the town being pressed by a famine, she was obliged to escape; while her brother, the earl of Gloucester, endeavouring to follow, was taken prisoner, and exchanged for Stephen, who still continued a captive (November 1141). Thus a sudden revolution once more took place: Matilda was deposed, and obliged to seek for safety in Oxford," and some years after retired to Normandy (1147). Stephen quitted his dungeon in the castle of Bristol, and resumed the exercise of the royal functions: his government extended, at this time, only over that portion of the country in which his partizans were the most powerful, that is to say, the midland and eastern counties of England. As for Normandy, none of his orders had authority there; for during his captivity, the whole of that country had submitted to count Geoffry of Anjou, the husband of Matilda, who persuaded the Norman barons, in 1148, to

142. Had Stephen and Matilda recourse to arms? What was the result of the last engagement?

143. What induced the nobility to pity the deposed king? Who promoted the interest of Stephen? From what place was he taken to re-ascend the throne? Did the whole of England now acknowledge Stephen's authority?



acknowledge prince Henry, his eldest son, as their legitimate duke.

144. *Stephen restored—Prince Henry—Stephen's Death.*—

Having re-established his authority, Stephen endeavoured to obtain possession of the castles of his opponents, and to reduce all the nobles to subordination; but as his purpose was too openly avowed, he exasperated his adherents as well as his opponents. He also embroiled himself with the clergy, when primate Theobald issued an interdict against all that part of the kingdom which acknowledged his usurpation. Instantly, in one-half of the kingdom all the churches were closed, and the priests and monks either withdrew, or refused to perform any office of religion. This was a state of things which men could not endure, and Stephen was compelled to seek a reconciliation with the archbishop. These dissensions were no sooner settled than the king had "to enter the lists with a new opposer, who was every day coming to maturity, and growing more formidable: this was Henry, the son of Matilda, who had now reached his sixteenth year; and gave the greatest hopes of being one day a valiant leader, and a consummate politician. With the wishes of the people in his favour, young Henry was resolved once more to dispute Stephen's usurped pretensions; and accordingly made an invasion of England, where he was immediately joined by almost all the barons of the kingdom (1149). In the meantime, Stephen, alarmed at the power and popularity of his young rival, tried every method to anticipate the purpose of his invasion; but finding it impossible to turn the torrent, he was obliged to have recourse to treaty. It was therefore agreed, by all parties, that Stephen should reign during his life; and that justice should be administered in his name. That Henry should, on Stephen's death, succeed to the kingdom; and William, Stephen's son, should inherit all the estates and honours, whether in England or on the Continent, which his father had enjoyed before he ascended the throne. After all the barons had sworn to this treaty, which filled the whole kingdom with joy, Henry returned to the Continent; and Stephen resumed the peaceable enjoyment of his throne (Nov. 1153). His reign, however, was soon after terminated by his death, which happened at Dover on the 25th of October, 1154," in the 50th year of his age, and 19th of his reign. He was buried in the monastery of Faversham, in Kent, beside his wife Maud, daughter and heiress of earl

144. What false step did Stephen take? Had Stephen any new opposer? Who joined prince Henry when he landed in England? How did Stephen pacify him? When and where did Stephen die?



Eustace of Boulogne, by whom he had three sons and two daughters, each of whom died without issue.

145. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—Stephen granted two charters of privilege, the violation of which was the immediate cause of the revolt of his barons, their principle of action being to have an equivalent for the support of usurpers. During the merciless civil warfare which raged during the whole of his reign, several large towns with their inhabitants were destroyed, as Winchester, Worcester, and Nottingham. The barons ravaged the country around their castles to such an extent that for a day's journey not a man might be seen in a town, nor a peasant in the country; the land lay untilled, and famine prevailed to increase the misery of the people.

## HENRY II., SURNAMED PLANTAGENET.

Began to reign Dec. 8th 1154: died July 6th, 1189.

146. *Accession of Henry II.*—By the death in 1128 of prince William only child of duke Robert eldest son of the Conqueror, Henry Plantagenet, eldest son of Matilda, only legitimate child of Henry I., became the direct heir to the throne, which he ascended on the death of Stephen without an adverse murmur. He then became the most powerful prince of the age, having also inherited, succeeded to, and acquired by his marriage with Eleanor the divorced queen of Louis VII. of France, one-fifth of the territories now comprised in the kingdom of France, including its whole Atlantic coast so important both in itself and for its communication with the Continent. When Henry received the news of Stephen's death he was engaged in suppressing an insurrection in Normandy. Relying on the situation of affairs in England, he did not leave it for more than six weeks thereafter, and then only when he had reduced some turbulent vassals to obedience. He landed in England, and himself and queen were crowned together ten days after at Westminster, on the 19th of December, 1154.

147. *Correction of Abuses.*—"The first act of Henry's government gave the people a happy omen of his wise administration. Conscious of his power he began to correct those abuses, and to resume those privileges, which had been extorted from the weakness or the credulity of his predecessors. He immediately dismissed those mercenary soldiers, who committed infinite disorders in the nation; he resumed

146. In what year did Henry II. ascend the throne? What particulars are related of him? What rendered Henry the most powerful prince of his age? When was he crowned king of England?

147. Relate the first acts of his reign.



many of those benefactions which had been made to churches and monasteries in the former reigns," and "gave charters to several towns, by which the citizens claimed their freedom and privileges, independent of any superior but himself. These charters were the groundwork of English liberty. The struggles which had before this time been, whether the king or the barons, or the clergy, should be despotic over the people, now began to assume a new aspect; and a fourth order, namely, that of the more opulent of the people, began to claim a share in administration."

148. *Wars in France, 1156-62.*—Henry having by these and other wise measures restored peace to the afflicted kingdom during the first year of his reign, was chiefly engaged for the next six years in wars with France, for the preservation and aggrandisement of his continental possessions; but the military incidents with which these were accompanied, are too minute and insignificant for a detail. During the earlier part of the contest, the power of Henry greatly preponderated. He compelled his brother Geoffry to give up his claim to the province of Anjou for an annual pension; and obtained the earldom of Nantz, and afterwards a large portion of the earldom of Thoulouse; and returned to England in 1161. It was during this war that a combatant flourished who was afterwards to acquire celebrity in conflicts of a very different character. This was Thomas à Becket, archdeacon of Canterbury and chancellor of the kingdom, Henry's chief negotiator, lieutenant in war, and companion in amusement. This ecclesiastic showed himself a brave man-at-arms, as well as a wise leader: he unhorsed a gallant French knight in single combat, in the presence of the armies of France and England, and took by assault three strong fortresses.

149. *Parentage and Rise of Thomas à Becket.*—The famous Thomas à Becket, the first of English extraction who had, since the Norman Conquest, risen to any power, was the son of Gilbert, a citizen of London, and the daughter of a Saracen chief. His father had followed his Norman lord in the first crusade to Palestine, where he was made prisoner and reduced to slavery. Unfortunate and despised as he was, he gained the love of the fair Saracen, who favoured his

147. What part of the nation began for the first time to claim a share in the administration?

148. What success did Henry obtain in his French wars? Who was his chief companion in these? Why was Becket made Archbishop of Canterbury?

149. Who were Becket's parents? What romantic particulars are stated of them?



escape and return to England, whither she afterwards followed, knowing only two words, *London* and *Gilbert*, that were intelligible to the inhabitants of the west. When she arrived in London, she ran from street to street, repeating Gilbert, Gilbert, to the astonished crowds that gathered around her, and at last to the man she loved. After taking advice on this miraculous incident, Gilbert got his mistress baptised by the name of Matilda, and then married her. In 1119, a son was born to them, who received the name of Thomas Becket, according to the mode of double names introduced into England by the Normans. This boy, born for the torment of the Anglo-Normans, received the education most fitted to advance him in life. While young, he was sent into France to study the laws, the sciences, and the languages of the Continent, and to lose the English accent, which was then in England a proof of vulgar birth. While yet a young man, he was employed as an under-clerk in the office of the sheriff of London, in which situation he attracted the attention of archbishop Theobald of Canterbury, who sent him to complete his education at the then famous schools of Bologna in Italy. On his return to London, he took deacon's orders, and thereafter obtained from his patron some valuable church preferment. He likewise employed him in many delicate and important foreign negotiations, all of which he conducted with great ability. On the accession of Henry II. archdeacon Becket was presented to him by primate Theobald, as a zealous servant of his cause during the usurpation of Stephen. Henry was so well pleased with the archdeacon that he appointed him tutor to his eldest son, and afterwards his chancellor and prime minister. His appointments gave him a large income, which he expended in luxury and ostentatious display. His exercise of power however was not only advantageous to the king, but also to the nation. He humbled the barons on all possible occasions, and compelled the clergy to pay the same taxes as the laity, which brought upon him the censure of the church and the threat of excommunication. Henry therefore considered him a fit instrument in his expected contest with the church, and appointed him in 1162 to succeed archbishop Theobald of Canterbury, a promotion which proved the most vexatious event of Henry's reign.

150. *Quarrel with Becket—Constitutions of Clarendon, 1164*  
 —“No sooner was Becket fixed in this high station, which

149. Who was Becket's patron? What preferments did he obtain? How did he exercise his power? Why was he appointed Archbishop of Canterbury?



rendered him for life the second person in the kingdom," than he became an altered man: the soldier, statesman, courtier, and man of the world was changed into a rigid monk. "He endeavoured to retrieve the character of sanctity, which his former levities might have appeared to oppose. He was in his person the most mortified man that could be seen. He wore sackcloth next his skin. He changed it so seldom, that it was filled with dirt and vermin. His usual diet was bread, his drink water; which he rendered further unpalatable, by the mixture of unsavoury herbs. His back was mangled with frequent discipline. He every day washed on his knees the feet of thirteen beggars. Thus pretending to sanctity, he set up for being a defender of the privileges of the clergy, which had for a long time been enormous, and which it was Henry's aim to abridge. A popular pretext for beginning his intended reformation soon offered. A man in holy orders had debauched the daughter of a gentleman in Worcestershire; and then murdered the father, to prevent the effects of his resentment. The atrociousness of the crime produced a spirit of indignation among the people; and the king insisted that the assassin should be tried by the civil magistrate;" the more particularly as the ecclesiastical tribunals had no power to inflict capital, or, indeed any adequate punishment. "This Becket opposed, alleging the privileges of the church." Then commenced a long and terrible struggle between this priest and the king: Henry called together a great council at Westminster, and required the prelates to renounce for their clergy an impurity as dishonourable to themselves as inconsistent with order and law. He required that every clerk convicted of an enormous crime, or who had confessed it, should be forthwith degraded and delivered over to the civil power for the purpose of condign punishment. Being unable to obtain this moderate demand, Henry asked if the prelates were ready to observe the customs of Henry I.? Archbishop à Becket answered, "Yes; saving the rights and privileges of their order"—one of those reservations which seem specious till it be discovered that they destroy the concessions to which they are annexed. "In order finally to determine this matter, the king summoned, in January, 1164, a general council of the nobility and prelates at Clarendon, in Wiltshire, to whom he submitted this great and important affair, and desired their concurrence. These councils seemed at that time convened rather to give authority to the king's decrees,

150. What means did Becket adopt to obtain popularity? What gave rise to a contest between the king and Becket? To whom did Henry submit this affair, and what was the result of the reference?



than to enact laws that were to bind their posterity. A number of regulations were then drawn up, which were afterwards well known under the title of the Constitutions of Clarendon, and were then voted without opposition. By these regulations it was enacted, that clergymen accused of any crime should be tried in the civil courts; that no baron should be excommunicated without the consent of the king; that laymen should not be tried in the spiritual courts except by legal and reputable witnesses; that no appeal from sentences pronounced in England should be allowed. These, with some others of less consequence, or implied in the above, to the number of sixteen, were readily subscribed to by all the bishops present; Becket himself, who at first showed some reluctance, added his name to the number. But Pope Alexander III. condemned them in the strongest terms, abrogated, annulled, and rejected them;" whereupon Becket, full of contrition for apparent acquiescence, openly did penance for his culpable weakness, and "took part with his holiness, which forthwith produced a contest between him and the king. In the midst of his dispute, Becket, with an intrepidity peculiar to himself, arrayed himself in his episcopal vestments, and with the cross in his hand, went forward to the king's palace, and entering the royal apartments, sat down, holding up his cross as his banner of protection. There he put himself, in the most solemn manner, under the protection of the supreme pontiff; and, upon receiving a refusal to leave the kingdom, he secretly withdrew in disguise, and at last found means to cross over to the Continent, where his apparent sanctity gained him a very favourable reception both from the people and their governors."

151. *Becket in Banishment—His Return, 1164-70.*—As soon as Henry was informed of the asylum given by Louis VII. to Becket in the abbey of Pontigny, in Burgundy, he issued writs to the sheriffs of England, commanding them to seize all rents and possessions of the primate within their jurisdiction. He also directed the justices of the kingdom to detain all bearers of papers, whether from the Pope or Becket, that purported to pronounce excommunication or interdict on the realm; and all clerks attempting to leave the kingdom without a passport from the king. He likewise seized the re-

50. What was the substance of the Constitutions of Clarendon? Did the Pope approve of them? What was the conduct of Becket when the will of the Pope became known in England? In what manner did he leave the island?

151. What measures did the king pursue on Becket's leaving the kingdom?



venues of every clergyman who had either followed Becket into France, or who was discovered to have sent him aid in money. "The Pope and Becket were not remiss to retort their fulminations, and to shake the very foundation of the king's authority. Becket compared himself to Christ, who had been condemned by a lay tribunal, and who was crucified anew in the present oppressions under which the church laboured. But he did not rest in complaints only. He issued out a censure, excommunicating the king's chief ministers by name, all that were concerned in sequestering the revenues of his see, and all who obeyed or favoured the Constitutions of Clarendon. Attempts, indeed were frequently made towards an accommodation: but the mutual jealousies that each bore to the other, protracted this desirable treaty, until the mutual aim of both made reconciliation necessary. Nothing could exceed the insolence with which Becket conducted himself upon his return to England in December, 1170. Instead of retiring quietly to his diocese, with that modesty which became a man just pardoned by his king, he made a progress through Kent, in all the splendour and magnificence of a sovereign pontiff. From Canterbury he proceeded to London, where the clergy, the laity, men of all ranks and ages, came forth to meet him, and celebrated his triumphal entry with hymns of joy. Thus confident of the voice of the hearts of the people, he began to launch forth his thunders against those who had been his former opposers. The Archbishop of York, who had crowned Henry's eldest son in his absence, was the first against whom he denounced sentence of suspension. The Bishops of London and Salisbury Becket actually excommunicated. One man he excommunicated for having spoken against him; and another for having cut off the tail of one of his horses."

152. *Murder of Becket, 1171.*—"Henry was then in Normandy, while the primate was thus triumphantly parading through the kingdom; and it was not without the utmost indignation that he received information of his turbulent insolence. When the suspended and excommunicated prelates arrived with their complaints, his anger knew no bounds. He broke forth into the most acrimonious expressions against that arrogant churchman, whom he had raised from the lowest station to be the plague of his life, and the continual disturber of his government. The Archbishop of York remarked to him, that so long as Becket lived, he could never expect to enjoy peace

151. What arrogance did he display on returning to England?

152. What effect upon Henry's temper had the conduct of Becket, and what were its consequences?



or tranquillity; and the king himself burst out into an exclamation, 'Are there no knights whom I feed at my table that will go and deliver me from a priest who insults me?' These words excited the attention of the whole court; and armed four of his most resolute attendants, to gratify their monarch's secret inclinations. The conspirators, being joined by some assistants at the place of their meeting, proceeded to Canterbury with all that haste their bloody intentions required, and arrived there on the 30th of December, 1171. Advancing directly to Becket's house, and entering his apartment, they reproached him very fiercely for the rashness and insolence of his conduct. During their altercation, the time approached for Becket to assist at vespers, whither he went unguarded, the conspirators following, and preparing for their attempt. As soon as he reached the altar, where it is just to think he aspired at the glory of martyrdom, they all fell upon him; and having cloven his head with repeated blows, he dropt down dead before the altar of St. Benedict, which was besmeared with his blood and brains. Nothing could exceed the king's consternation upon receiving the first news of this prelate's catastrophe. He was instantly sensible that the murder would be ultimately imputed to him." He therefore immediately returned from Normandy, and assembled a powerful army to provide against eventualities, which was afterwards employed in the invasion of Ireland to divert the public attention from the murder of Becket.

153. *View of Ireland until 1169.*—"Ireland was at that time in pretty much the same situation that England had been after the first invasion of the Saxons. The inhabitants were of Celtic origin, as is evident from the language still spoken by their descendants, and were early converted to Christianity; and, for three or four centuries after, possessed a very large proportion of the learning of the times. Being undisturbed by foreign invasions, and perhaps too poor to invite the rapacity of conquerors, they enjoyed a peaceful life, which they gave up to piety, and such learning as was then thought necessary to promote it. Of their learning, their arts, their piety, and even their polished manners, too many monuments remain to this day for us to make the least doubt concerning them: but it is equally true, that in time they fell from these advantages; and their degenerate posterity became wrapt in the darkest barbarity. At the period we are

152. How did Becket lose his life? What precaution did the king take to prevent popular disturbance thereon? How was the army afterwards employed?

153. What is stated of the early condition of Ireland?



now speaking of, the island was divided into five principalities; namely, Leinster, Meath, Munster, Ulster, and Connaught; each governed by its respective monarch. As it had been usual for one or other of those to take the lead in their wars, he was for the time denominated sole monarch of the kingdom, and possessed of a power resembling that of the early Saxon monarchs in England. Roderic O'Connor, king of Connaught, then possessed this dignity, and Dermot M'Morrogh was king of Leinster. This last-named prince, a weak, licentious tyrant, had carried off and ravished the daughter of the king of Meath, who being strengthened by the alliance of the king of Connaught, invaded the ravisher's dominions, and expelled him from his kingdom. The prince, thus justly punished, had recourse to Henry II., who was at that time in Guienne; and offered to hold his kingdom of the English crown, in case he recovered it by the king's assistance. Henry readily accepted the offer; but being at that time embarrassed by more near interests, he only gave Dermot letters patent; by which he empowered all his subjects to aid the Irish prince in the recovery of his dominions."

154. *Invasion and partial Conquest of Ireland, 1169-72.*—"Relying on this authority, Dermot returned to Bristol, where, after some difficulty, he formed a treaty with Richard, surnamed Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, who agreed to reinstate him in his dominions, upon condition of his being married to his daughter Eva, and declared heir of all his territory. Being thus assured of assistance, he returned to Ireland and concealed himself during the winter in the monastery of Ferns, which he had founded. Robert Fitz-Stephens was the first knight who was able, in the ensuing spring, to fulfil his engagements, by landing with a hundred and thirty knights, sixty esquires, and three hundred archers, at Bannock bay, in June, 1169. They were soon after joined by Maurice Pendergast, who, about the same time, brought over ten knights, and sixty archers; and with this small body of forces they resolved on besieging Wexford, which was to be theirs by treaty. This town was quickly reduced; and the adventurers being reinforced by another body of men, to the amount of a hundred and fifty, under the command of Maurice Fitzgerald, composed an army that struck the barbarous natives with

153. Into how many principalities was that island then divided, and how was each governed? What induced the king of Meath to solicit Henry's assistance? What offer did he hold out to Henry?

154. Who agreed to reinstate Dermot in his dominions, and what were the terms of agreement? What was the result of that expedition?



awe. Roderic, the then chief monarch of the island, ventured to oppose them, but he was defeated; and soon after the prince of Ossory was obliged to submit, and give hostages for his future conduct."

154\*. *Strongbow: king of Leinster.*—*Henry II. annexes Ireland, 1172.*—"When reinstated in his hereditary dominions, Dermot began to conceive hopes of extending his power and making himself master of Ireland. With these views, he endeavoured to expedite Strongbow; who, being personally prohibited by king Henry, was not yet come over. Dermot tried to inflame his ambition by the glory of the conquest, and his avarice by the advantages it would procure. He expatiated on the cowardice of the natives, and the certainty of his success. Strongbow first sent over Raymond, one of his retinue, with ten knights and seventy archers; and receiving permission shortly after for himself, he landed with two hundred horse, and a hundred archers. All these English forces now joining together, became irresistible; and though the whole number did not amount to a thousand, yet such was the barbarous state of the natives, that they were everywhere put to the rout. The city of Waterford quickly surrendered; Dublin was taken by assault. While Dermot was meditating new conquests, he was carried off by death, and Strongbow, who had married his daughter Eva, according to treaty, became master of the kingdom of Leinster. The island being thus in a manner wholly subdued, for nothing was capable of opposing the further progress of the English arms, Henry became willing to share in person those honours which the adventurers had already secured. He, therefore, shortly after landed in Ireland, at the head of 500 knights and some soldiers; not so much to conquer a disputed territory, as to take possession of a kingdom. Thus, after a trifling effort, in which very little money was expended, and little blood shed, that beautiful island became an appendage to the English crown."

155. *Rosomond Clifford.*—"The joy which the conquest of Ireland diffused was very great; but troubles of a domestic nature served to render the remaining part of Henry's life a scene of turbulence and disquietude. Unlimited gallantry was one of the few vices ascribed to this monarch. Queen Eleanor, whom he had married from motives of ambition, and who had been divorced from her former royal consort for her incontinence, was long become disagreeable to Henry; and he sought in others those satisfactions he could not find with her. Among the number of his mistresses, Rosomond Clif-

154\*. What is said of Strongbow? Why did Henry go to Ireland

155. What was the name and character of Henry's queen?



ford, daughter of an Anglo-Norman baron, better known by the name of Fair Rosomond, whose personal charms and whose death make so conspicuous a figure in the romances and the ballads of the times, was the most remarkable. She is said to have been the most beautiful woman that was ever seen in England, and that Henry loved her with a long and faithful attachment. To secure her from the resentment of his queen, he concealed her in a labyrinth in Woodstock-park, where he passed in her company his hours of vacancy and pleasure. How long this secret intercourse continued is not told us; but it was not so closely concealed but that it came to the queen's knowledge, who, as the accounts add, being guided by a clue of silk to her fair rival's retreat, obliged her, by holding a drawn dagger to her breast, to swallow poison. Whatever may be the veracity of this story, certain it is, that this haughty woman, though formerly offensive by her own gallantries, was now no less so by her jealousy; and she it was who first sowed the seeds of dissension between the king and his children."

156. *Revolt of Henry's Sons, 1173.*—Henry's miseries and misfortunes were aggravated by the division which he made of his dominions among his three sons. Who can estimate the evils at all times inflicted on the people by submission to that usurpation which makes them the patrimony of kings, and which dissevers peoples at their caprice! It was long acted upon, and it is now not wholly repudiated, that nations were constituted for those who govern them, whereas government is made for them. The young Henry, having been crowned as joint-king with his father, treated him with disdain. Supported by France, this insolent youth rebelled, as well as his brothers—Richard, who had received the investiture of Guyenne and Poitou, and Geoffrey, of Brittany. "Even queen Eleanor herself was meditating an escape to the court of France, whither her sons had retired, and had put on man's apparel for that purpose, when she was seized by the king's order and put in confinement. Thus Henry saw all his long perspective of future happiness totally clouded; his sons, then only of the respective ages of eighteen, sixteen, and fifteen, eager to share the spoils of their father's possessions; his queen, warmly encouraging those undutiful princes in their rebellion; and many potentates of Europe not ashamed to lend them assistance to support their pretensions, these young princes had soon sufficient influence to raise a powerful confederacy in their favour. Henry, there-

155. What tragical event resulted from the licentiousness of the king?

156. What was the conduct of his sons?



upon, knowing the influence of superstition over the minds of the people, and, perhaps, apprehensive that a part of his troubles arose from the displeasure of Heaven, resolved to do penance at the shrine of St. Thomas at Canterbury, for that was the name given to Becket upon his canonization. As soon as he came within sight of the church of Canterbury, alighting from his horse, he walked barefoot towards the town, prostrated himself before the shrine of the saint, and submitted to be flogged on the bare back. Next day he received absolution; and, departing for London, was acquainted with the agreeable news of a victory over the Scots, obtained on the very day of his absolution. His affairs from that time began to wear a better aspect: the barons, who had revolted, or were preparing for a revolt, made instant submission; they delivered up their castles to the victor; and England, in a few weeks, was restored to perfect tranquillity. Prince Henry, who was ready to embark with a large army, to second the efforts of the English insurgents, finding all disturbances quieted at home, abandoned all thoughts of the expedition." The princes were then obliged by their confederates to entreat their father's forgiveness, which was readily granted, with an amnesty to all their supporters, except king David of Scotland and the earls of Chester and Leicester who were then Henry's prisoners (Sept. 1174). The reconciliation between the king and his three sons was drawn up in the form of a political treaty. They were made to take the oath of liege-homage to him (§ 127, (11)), a contract then reputed more sacred and inviolable than were the ties of blood.

157. *Fraternal War—Death of Henry II., 1178-89.*—In order to terminate the dissensions between his sons, the king required in 1178 that Richard and Geoffry should take the oath of fealty to the young king their brother. Geoffry submitted; but the fiery Richard refused. A cruel war then ensued throughout the continental provinces between the brothers, in which neither party gave quarter. The young Henry, whether from fatigue or anxiety, died in June of this year (1178), "in the twenty-sixth year of his age, not without the deepest remorse for his undutiful conduct to his father. As he left no posterity, Richard then became heir in his

156. What was the name of Becket after his canonization? Why did Henry do penance at the shrine of St. Thomas? What followed on his absolution? What did the king make his sons do?

157. What new troubles arose in Henry's family? What did he require of his sons? Why did prince Richard rebel? What was the fate of his eldest son?



room, and soon discovered the same ardent ambition that had misled his elder brother. The *third* crusade having been projected, Richard, who had long wished to have all the glory of such an expedition to himself, and who could not bear to have even his father a partner in his victories, entered into a confederacy with the king of France, who promised to confirm him in those wishes at which he so ardently aspired. By this, king Henry found himself obliged to give up all hopes of taking the cross, and compelled to enter upon a war with Philip II. and his son Richard, who were unnaturally leagued against him. He however soon after entered into negotiations, in which he was obliged to submit to many mortifying concessions. But still more so, when, upon demanding a list of the barons that it was stipulated he should pardon, he found his son John, his favourite child, among the number. He had long borne an infirm state of body with calm resignation; he had seen his children rebel without much emotion; but when he saw that child, whose interest always lay next to his heart, among the number of those who were in rebellion against him, he could no longer contain his indignation. He broke out into expressions of the utmost despair; cursed the day on which he had received his miserable being; and bestowed on his ungrateful children a malediction, which he never after could be prevailed upon to retract. The more his heart was disposed for friendship and affection, the more he resented this barbarous return; and now, not having one corner in his heart where he could look for comfort, or fly for refuge from his conflicting passions, he lost all his former vivacity. A lingering fever, caused by a broken heart, soon after terminated his life and his miseries at the castle of Chinon near Saumur on the 5th of July, 1189, in the fifty-eighth year of his age and the thirty-fifth of his reign: in the course of which he displayed all the abilities of a politician, all the sagacity of a legislator, and all the magnanimity of a hero." Of his sons by queen Eleanor, only two, Richard and John, survived him: but he had at least two sons by Rosomond the Fair, the elder married the heiress of the earl of Salisbury and succeeded to his possessions and dignity.

158. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—  
(1). The boldest and most important measure of Henry II. was the

157. Who now joined in war against Henry? What favourite scheme did this union compel him to relinquish? What was the nature of the concessions to which Henry found himself obliged to submit? To what may his death be attributed? In what year of his life and reign did he die? What excellences did he possess?



resumption of such of the crown lands, as had been granted by his predecessor Stephen, and even by his mother Matilda. The constitutional principle upon which he proceeded was that the ancient patrimony of the crown, called in Domesday-book *Terra Regis* (king's land), was inalienable; that if any portion of it was given away, either the king by whom it was granted, or any of his successors, could at any time resume it. The illegality of these grants and the necessity for their immediate resumption were affirmed by a great council held at Wallingford to adjudicate thereon (1154).

(2). It was in the fifth year of this reign (1151), that personal service in war, the primary feudal condition on which estates in land were held of the state, was compounded for by a money payment called a *scutage*, which was then an arbitrary composition as the king and subject could agree. The amount then accepted is uncertain, but it may have been equal, from the large sum received, to more than a half-year's rent of the knight's benefice, as the service required was to war at Toulouse in the extreme south of France, the whole charge in going, in serving there for sixty days,\* and in returning, having to be paid by the beneficiary.

## RICHARD I., SURNAMED CŒUR DE LEON.

Began to reign August 13th, 1189 ;—died April 6th, 1199.

159. *Richard's coronation.—Massacre of the Jews.*—After weeping over his father's corpse, Richard repaired from the Continent to England, accompanied by his brother John. His coronation on the 3rd of September, 1189, was disgraced by a terrible massacre of the Jews. The lion-hearted king having assumed the cross with the intention of setting out on the *third* crusade, popular zeal was at its height against the Mahometans and also the Jews, chiefly on account of their usurious dealings. Well knowing the existence of this feeling, the king issued the day before his coronation a proclamation forbidding their appearance at the ceremony, an order which was imprudently disobeyed. On one of them being recognised in the abbey, a scuffle commenced, when a cry immediately arose, that the king had given permission to slay the intruders; upon which many of the Jews were murdered

159. In what years did the reign of Richard I. commence and terminate? By what was the coronation of Richard disgraced?

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\* The knight's service due in each year is stated to have been forty days; but from a recent examination of the Rolls of Parliament by Mr. Toulmin Smith, it has been discovered that the foot soldiers provided and maintained at the expense of parishes had to serve for sixty days in the time of Edward II., the presumption is therefore that the knights had also to serve for a like period.—See Rolls of Parl. temp. E. ii., Appendix 25.



on the spot. The report was eagerly caught by the populace, who fell upon them throughout the city, and massacred them without distinction of age or sex, pillaging and forcing their houses. The example spread through the kingdom, and the Jews, who were numerous at York, after seeing many of their wives and children butchered before their eyes by the mob, threw themselves into the castle, and secured the gates. The multitude, incited chiefly by ecclesiastics, besieged the castle for several days; and on the night before the chief assault, an event took place that frightfully reminds us of the last days of Jerusalem. A venerable rabbi thus addressed his brethren:—"Men of Israel, God commands us to die for his law, as our noble forefathers have done in all ages. If we fall into the hands of our enemies, they will cruelly torment us. That life, therefore, which our Creator gave, let us willingly and devotedly return to him with our own hands." Most of the hearers applauded the proposal, upon which they proceeded to burn their costly garments, and destroy their rich vessels, and precious stones. When they had thus deprived their enemies of the expected spoil, Jocen, the wealthiest of their number, stabbed his wife; the rest of the women were then slain, after which the men plunged their weapons into their own breasts. On the morning, the few who had not followed the example of their brethren, opened the gates to the besiegers upon a promise of immunity, and were instantly put to death; after which the bonds of Christian debts to Jewish creditors were taken from the cathedral in which they had been deposited, and committed to the flames.

160. *Sale of the Crown Lands—Rise of Corporations.*—In spite of this massacre of Hebrew usurers, Richard soon showed that the greatest of speculators still survived in himself, by the methods which he adopted to raise money. Immediately after his coronation, he caused an exact account to be taken of all the royal treasures. He next began to sell all his personal estates, his castles, his towns, the offices of state, and the whole of the crown lands: he likewise sold the superiority of the crown of England over Scotland for 10,000 marks; and he even declared that he would sell England itself if he could find a purchaser. Many rich Normans purchased these royal and state possessions. The English inhabitants of various towns assessed themselves to redeem their houses, and once more became, under a crown and quit rent, the legal proprietors of their habitations. By the simple fact

159. What are the particulars of the massacre?

160. On what was his heart set, and what plans did he adopt to raise money?



of such a bargain, the town which concluded it became a corporation, and organised itself under aldermen, responsible to the king for the reserved rent, and to the burgesses for the disposal of the sums raised by the personal contribution.

161. *Richard sets out on the Crusade.*—Having gathered an immense sum of money to defray the expenses of his campaign in the Holy Land, and such was the activity with which his preparations were made, that on the 11th of December, (1190) he embarked at Dover with a more powerful armament than England had ever sent from her shores. The armies of France and England mustered on the plains of Vezelai, to the number of 100,000 warriors, who after marching together to Lyons separated; Philip Augustus resolving to embark at Genoa, while Richard proposed to set sail from Marseilles. The fleets of the two nations reached Messina, where the hosts resolved to winter; and here the kings of France and England exhibited that mutual jealousy which was so materially to affect the campaign. A hollow reconciliation followed, and Richard, after contracting an affiance with Berengaria, daughter of the king of Navarre, to the rejection of the French king's sister, set sail from Messina on the 10th of April. His fleet, of 55 galleys and 150 ships, was however scattered by a storm, and the ship that carried the fair Berengaria and his sister was driven upon the island of Cyprus, the petty king or emperor of which would not permit the ladies to land. He even plundered the other English ships that were stranded upon the coast. As soon as Richard heard these tidings, the crusade was for the moment forgot; he landed with his whole army in Cyprus, easily defeated the half-armed Cypriots in two engagements, and took their sovereign prisoner. Here, several of the rulers of Palestine arrived, to implore Richard to hasten his march; upon which he solemnised his nuptials with Berengaria, and on June the 8th he arrived at Acre, where his prowess in behalf of the cross was to be first exhibited.

162. *The Third Crusade, 1191-2.*—"Upon the arrival of the English army at Acre in Palestine, fortune was seen to declare more openly in favour of the common cause. The French and English princes seemed to forget their secret jealousies, and to act in concert." The siege of Acre was then so vigorously prosecuted, that the town capitulated on the 12th of July, 1191. The joy of this conquest was, how-

160. What beneficial measures date from this time?

161. Where did the armies of England and France rendezvous, and what was their number? Relate what happened during the voyage.

162. What happened after Richard's arrival at Acre?



ever, soon damped by Philip returning to France, not being able cordially to act with such an imperious chief as the king of England. Philip however left with "Richard 10,000 of his troops, under the command of the duke of Burgundy. Richard being now conductor of the war, went on from victory to victory. The Christian adventurers, under his command, determined to besiege the renowned city of Ascalon, in order to prepare the way for attacking Jerusalem with greater advantage. Saladin, the most heroic of all the Saracen monarchs, was resolved to dispute their march, and placed himself upon the road with an army of 300,000 men. This was a day equal to Richard's wishes, this an enemy worthy his highest ambition. The English Crusaders were victorious. Richard, when the wings of his army were defeated, led on the main body in person, and restored the battle. The Saracens fled in the utmost confusion, and no less than 40,000 perished in the field of battle. Ascalon soon surrendered after this victory; other cities of less note followed the example; and Richard was at last able to advance within sight of Jerusalem, the object of his long and ardent expectations. But just at this glorious juncture his ambition was to suffer a total overthrow; upon reviewing his forces, and considering his abilities to prosecute the siege, he found that his army was so wasted with famine, fatigue, and even with victory, that they were neither able nor willing to second the views of their commander. It appeared, therefore, absolutely necessary to come to an accommodation with Saladin; and a truce for three years was accordingly concluded; in which it was agreed, that the sea-port towns of Palestine should remain in the hands of the Christians; and that all of that religion should be permitted to make their pilgrimage to Jerusalem in perfect security." Such was the result of the Third Crusade in which so much blood and treasure had been wasted, and where the only glory acquired by Richard was the reputation of being a courageous soldier.

163. *Richard a Prisoner in Austria, 1192-4.*—"Richard, having thus concluded his expedition with more glory than advantage, began to think of returning home." He first sent off his fleet, embarking the queen and his sister, and followed in a quick sailing ship, which left the port of Acre on

162. Why did Philip return so soon to France? Were the Christians successful under the command of Richard? Who opposed his march to Ascalon? How many of the Saracens fell in that battle? What mortification did Richard experience on coming within sight of Jerusalem? With whom did he conclude a truce? For how many years was it to continue? On what conditions was it formed?



the 21st of October, 1192, about three years after his departure from England, two years after his arrival at Messina, and sixteen months after his landing in Palestine. But it was now that the most perilous part of his career awaited him. Tempests first arose, so that for six weeks he was separated from his fleet, and buffeted by the waves; and when the storms had assuaged, his ship was boarded by pirates, in the neighbourhood of Corfu. The king, who admired the hardy valour of these depredators, made himself known to them, and persuaded them to carry him to Zara, where he landed; and he there resumed, with his attendants, his journey on foot, disguised as a pilgrim, and under the name of Hugh the merchant. But Richard was so ill qualified to support any disguise, by his bearing and liberality, that he was discovered in a village near Vienna, and "arrested by duke Leopold, of Austria, who commanded him to be imprisoned, and loaded with shackles, to the disgrace of honour and humanity. The emperor Henry VI. soon after required the prisoner to be delivered up to him, and stipulated a large sum of money (50,000 marks) to the duke as a reward for his service. Thus the king of England, who had long filled the world with his fame, was basely thrown into a dungeon, and loaded with irons, by those who expected to reap a sordid advantage from his misfortunes. It was a long time before his subjects in England knew what was become of their beloved monarch. So little intercourse was there between different nations at that time, that this discovery is said by some to have been made by Blondel the king's French minstrel, who, playing upon his harp, near the fortress of Worms, in which Richard was confined, a tune which he knew that his master was fond of, he was answered by the king from within, who, with his harp, played the same tune; and thus discovered the place of his confinement." Blondel next engaged himself in the service of the commandant, and found means to communicate with the king. Letters were then forwarded to England, which raised the indignant cry in every country that the great hero of the age and champion of the cross was a prisoner to the emperor of Germany. "This barbarous monarch, who now saw that he could no longer detain his prisoner, was at last prevailed upon to listen to terms

163. What happened to Richard on his voyage from Acre? What induced Richard to attempt returning through Germany? By whom was he arrested in that country? Relate his treatment. How was the place of his confinement discovered?



of accommodation. A ransom was agreed upon, which amounted to 150,000 marks of pure silver, Cologne weight, the payment of which released the gallant Richard, and once more restored him to his expecting subjects" on the 13th of May, 1194, eighteen months after his departure from Acre.

164. *Richard's Return—John is punished—War with France, 1194–9.*—Nothing could exceed the joy of the English upon seeing their monarch return, after all his achievements and sufferings. He made his entry into London in triumph; and such was the profusion of wealth shown by the citizens, that the German lords, who attended him, were heard to say, that if the emperor had known of their affluence, he would not so easily have parted with their king. Feeling as if his bondage had un-kinged and degraded him, Richard soon after caused himself to be crowned anew with great pomp at Winchester. After which, as his brother John had endeavoured to usurp the crown in his absence, under the pretence that he was dead, and had together with the king of France sought to bribe the emperor of Germany to make Richard's imprisonment perpetual, the king took possession of John's castle of Nottingham and there held a council of prelates and barons, at which he confirmed the confiscation, decreed in his absence by his barons, of all his brother's possessions. That mean-spirited prince, on Richard afterwards proceeding to the Continent to be avenged of Philip Augustus, forsook his ally in iniquity, repaired to the presence of his injured brother, with crawling supplication for forgiveness. Richard soon after pardoned him, on the intercession of his mother queen Elinor, with this generous remark, "I wish I could as easily forget my brother's offence, as he will my pardon," but he refused to restore either his castles or his lands. For six years a desultory warfare was now carried on between France and England, the events of which however are undeserving of detail, consisting chiefly of the surprise of fortresses and petty skirmishes, in which little advantage was gained on either side; and these were generally followed by truces that showed the weakness of both parties. Both kings, indeed, had exhausted their finances in the expedition to Palestine, so that their individual qualities, more than the number of their forces, were at issue, and in such a conflict the impetuous valour of Richard was counteracted by the cool, cautious policy of his rival.

163. What sum was given for his ransom?

164. How was Richard received on his return? Who wished to prolong his captivity? Did he resent that injury?



165. *Sherwood Forest—Robin Hood.*—When Richard was at Nottingham, he journeyed to enjoy the charms of picturesque woodland scenery in Sherwood Forest, which then extended to the centre of the county of York, over a space of several hundred miles. It was a terror to the Normans from being the habitation of the remnant of Englishmen, who refused submission to their laws and maintained themselves in considerable numbers, under a sort of military organisation, which made them patriots not brigands. With their chief, Robin Hode or Hood, tradition has transmitted that the chivalrous Richard held a friendly interview. Romance history relates that the Saxon Robin was born "in the green wood among flowering lilies;" although the dread of the earls, viscounts, barons, and rich abbots of England, he was cherished by the farmers, the labourers, the widows, and the poor. His merry archers granted protection to all who were weak and oppressed; shared with them the spoils of those who fattened on the crops which others had sown; and did good to every honest and laborious person. Robin Hood was the best Bowman of all his band, and after him his lieutenant Little John from whom he never parted, in danger as well as in rejoicing. Among his other companions, were Mutch the miller's son, Scatchlocke, and Friar Tuck, who fought in his gown, and used no other weapon than a good cudgel. The narration by the strolling ballad singers of their surprising adventures, victories over the men of foreign race, their stratagems, and escapes, was the delight of the common people. Robin is reputed to have been as devout as he was brave in combat. He had his annual festival similar to a saint's day, which was kept religiously by the inhabitants of all the hamlets and small towns of England, none being permitted to employ themselves thereon otherwise than in play and pleasure. On that day the churches were deserted as well as the workshops; no saint no preacher, had greater prescription than Robin Hood on his feast, and its observance lasted even after the Reformation, as is attested by the celebrated and venerable bishop Latimer. The vulgar tradition is that his death arose from being overbled at a convent where he applied for medical aid in sickness, the operator having identified him. After this event the troop of which he was the soul, dispersed, and his faithful companion Little John, despairing of making a stand in England, went over to Ireland, and there aided the natives in their wars against the Nor-

165. Where was Sherwood Forest? What was its extent? Relate the story of Robin Hood. What followed on his death?



mans. Thus was dissolved the last band of English outlaws that had in any way a political object and character.

166. *Death of Richard I., 1199.*—"Richard's death was occasioned by a singular accident: in a manner altogether unworthy of his high character and station. His vassal count Vidomar of Limoges, had taken possession of a treasure, which was found by one of his peasants in digging on his estate; and to secure the remainder, he sent a part of it to the king. Richard, as superior lord, sensible that he had a right to the whole, insisted on its being sent to him; and, upon refusal, attacked the castle of Chaluz, where he understood this treasure had been deposited. On the fourth day of the siege, as he was riding round the place to observe where the assault might be given with the fairest probability of success, he was aimed at by one Bertram de Gourdon, an archer, from the castle, and pierced in the shoulder with an arrow. The wound was not in itself dangerous, but an unskilful surgeon, endeavouring to disengage the arrow from the flesh, so rankled the wound that it mortified, and brought on fatal symptoms. Richard, when he found his end approaching, made a will, in which he bequeathed the kingdom, with all his treasure, to his brother John, except a fourth part, which he distributed among his servants. He ordered also, that the archer who had shot him, should be brought into his presence, and demanded what injury he had done him that he should take away his life? The prisoner answered with deliberate intrepidity: 'You killed, with your own hands, my father, and my two brothers, and you intended to have hanged me. I am now in your power, and my torments may give you revenge; but I will endure them with pleasure, since it is my consolation, that I have rid the world of a tyrant.' Richard, struck with this answer, ordered the soldier to be presented with one hundred shillings, and set at liberty; but Marcadée, the general who commanded under him, like a true ruffian, ordered him to be flayed alive, and then hanged. Richard died on the 6th of April, 1199, in the forty-second year of his age, and in the tenth year of his reign, not one of which was spent in his own kingdom, leaving only one natural son, called Philip, behind him."

167. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—  
1. The reigns of heroes or of marshal monarchs are uniformly destruc-

166. What induced Richard to attack the castle of Chaluz? By whose hand did he fall? What proof of generosity did he show on that occasion? Did the general who acted under him possess the same greatness of mind? In what year of his life and reign did Richard die?



tive to the property and to the commercial interests of a nation. The only real benefits conferred in this reign were the establishing of one weight and one measure throughout the realm; and the issuing from the Isle of Oron a code of mercantile laws, which are still of great authority: in one of which it was provided that whatever was saved from wrecked ships, which until then was a droit of the king provided the owner perished, should belong to his sons and daughters, or brothers and sisters, if he had no children.

2. In the first year of Richard I. there was levied a scutage of ten shillings on every knight's fee: and for his ransom another of twenty shillings; also a fourth part of the rents, of the laics and of some ecclesiastics, and a tenth of others. There were also various other assessments on land, which however were not taxes, but feudal liabilities to which it was subject.

3. Richard like his predecessors was not scrupulous in his dealings with his subjects. On his return from Palestine, he cancelled all the sales of his personal estate made previous to his departure, and resumed all the offices of government and the crown lands then sold, without any compensation whatever.

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## JOHN.

Began to reign May 27th, 1199;—died Oct. 29th, 1216.

168. *John's Usurpation—Murders Prince Arthur.*—Prince Arthur of Brittany, then a boy twelve years old, ought to have succeeded to the crown on the death of Richard I., he being the orphan son of his next brother Geoffry. But his uncle John, youngest son of Henry II., was everywhere acknowledged as monarch, except in Maine, Touraine, and Anjou, which declared for the direct heir. As Stephen, according to Henry II., was an usurper, so were William II., Henry I., and John, each having supplanted the direct heir to the crown. After his coronation at Westminster, John "lost no time to secure his interest on the Continent; and his first care was to recover the revolted provinces from his nephew. But from the pride and cruelty of his temper, he soon became hateful to his subjects; and his putting his nephew, Arthur, to death, with his own hands, in the week before Easter, 1203, served to render him completely hateful." By this murder John lost at once one-third of his dominions. Philip of France, his feudal suzerain, ordered him to appear and prove his innocence; but John refused, when he was adjudged to lose all the lands that he held by homage. Philip then entered Normandy, while the Britons

168. In what year did the reign of John begin, and end? Was he the direct heir to the crown? Who was Arthur's father? What was his first act? What rendered him hateful to the nation? What followed from Arthur's murder?



attacked his other provinces, upon which John fled with precipitation to England. The three counties of Maine, Touraine, and Anjou were then annexed to the crown of France (1203), the duchy of Normandy in 1205, and the county of Poitou in 1206.

169. *John quarrels with the Clergy, 1207-12.*—"Hitherto John was rather hateful to his subjects than contemptible; they rather dreaded than despised him. But he soon showed that he might be offended, if not without resentment, at least with impunity. It was the fate of this vicious prince to make those the enemies of himself whom he wanted abilities to make the enemies of each other. The clergy had for some time acted as a community independent of the crown, and had their elections of each other generally confirmed by the Pope, to whom alone they owed subjection. However, the election of archbishops had for some time been a continual subject of dispute between the suffragan bishops and the Augustine monks, and both had precedents to confirm their pretensions. John sided with the bishops, and sent two knights of his train, who were fit instruments for such a prince, to expel the monks from their convent, and to take possession of their revenues. Pope Innocent III. was not displeased with these divisions; and instead of electing either of the persons appointed by the contending parties, he nominated Stephen Langton, as Archbishop of Canterbury (1207). John however refusing to admit the man of the Pope's choosing, the kingdom was put under an interdict (*see note, p. 58*). This instrument of terror in the hands of the see of Rome, was calculated to strike the senses in the highest degree, and to operate upon the superstitious minds of the people. By it a stop was immediately put to all the offices of religion but baptism (1208). No situation could be more deplorable than that of John upon this occasion. Furious at his indignities, jealous of his subjects, and apprehending an enemy in every face; it is said, that fearing a conspiracy against his life, he shut himself up a whole night in the castle of Nottingham, and suffered none to approach his person. But what was his consternation when he found that the Pope had actually excommunicated him and given away his kingdom to the monarch of France, and that the prince

169. To whom did the clergy own subjection? With whom did John side in the dispute between the Suffragan bishops and Augustine monks? Why was the Pope not displeased with these divisions? Whom did the Pope nominate Archbishop of Canterbury? What was the consequence of John's refusal to admit him? What were the effects of the papal interdict? What was then the situation of John?



of that country was actually preparing an army to take possession of his crown (1212)!"

170. *Submission of John to Innocent III.*—"Unsettled and apprehensive, as he was, John was still able to make an expiring effort to receive the enemy. All hated as he was, the natural enmity between the French and the English, the name of king which he still retained, and some remaining power, put him at the head of 60,000 men, a sufficient number indeed, but not to be relied on, and with these he advanced to Dover (1213). Europe now regarded the important preparations on both sides with impatience; and the decisive blow was soon expected, in which the church was to triumph, or to be overthrown. But neither Philip nor John had ability equal to the pontiff by whom they were actuated; who appeared on this occasion too refined a politician for either. He only intended to make use of Philip's power to intimidate his refractory son, not to destroy him. He intimated, therefore, to John, by his legate Pandolph, that there was but one way to secure himself from impending danger, which was to put himself under the Pope's protection, who was a merciful father, and still willing to receive a repentant sinner to his bosom. John was too much intimidated by the manifest danger of his situation, not to embrace every means offered for his safety. He assented to the truth of the legate's remonstrances, and took an oath to perform whatever stipulation the Pope should impose. Having thus sworn to the performance of an unknown command, the artful Italian so well managed the barons, and so effectually intimidated the king, that he persuaded him to take the most extraordinary oath in all the records of history, before all the people, kneeling upon his knees, and with his hands held up between those of the legate. 'I, John, by the grace of God, king of England, and lord of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, from my own free will, and the advice of my barons, give to the church of Rome, to Pope Innocent, and his successors, the kingdom of England, and all other prerogatives of my crown. I will hereafter hold them as the Pope's vassal. I will be faithful to God, to the church of Rome, to the Pope my master, and his successors legitimately elected. I promise to pay him a tribute of a thousand marks yearly; to wit, seven hundred for the kingdom of England, and three hundred for the kingdom of Ireland.' Having thus done homage to the legate, and agreed to reinstate

169. How did the Pope dispose of England?

170. To what cause was John indebted for an army of sixty thousand men? Who, as a politician, surpassed the kings both of England and France? Relate John's submission to the Pope.



Langton in the primacy, he received the crown, which he had been supposed to have forfeited, while the legate first trampled under his feet the tribute which John had consented to pay," and then gathered it up. The legate thereafter went to France and required Philip no longer to molest the penitent son and faithful vassal of the church. "Thus, by this most scandalous concession, John for once more averted the threatened blow."

171. *The Barons threaten John, 1215.*—"By repeated acts of cruelty, by expeditions without effect, and humiliations without reserve, John was become the detestation of all his subjects. His barons had been long forming a confederacy against him; but their union was broken, or their aims disappointed, by various and unforeseen accidents. At length, however, they assembled a large body of men at Stamford, and from thence, elated with their power, they marched to Brackley, about fifteen miles from Oxford, the place where the court then resided. John, hearing of their approach, sent the archbishop of Canterbury, the earl of Pembroke, and others of the council, to know the particulars of their request, and what those liberties were which they so earnestly importuned him to grant. The barons delivered a schedule, containing the chief articles of their demands, and of which the former charters of Henry I. and Stephen formed the groundwork. No sooner were these shown to the king than he burst into a furious passion, and asked why the barons did not also demand his kingdom, swearing that he would never comply with such exorbitant demands! But the confederacy was now too strong to fear much from the consequences of his resentment. They chose Robert Fitzwalter for their general, whom they dignified with the title of 'Mareschal of the army of God and of the holy church,' and proceeded without further ceremony to make war upon the king. They besieged Northampton; they took Bedford; they were joyfully received in London. They sent circular letters to all the nobility and gentlemen who had not yet declared in their favour, and menaced their estates with devastation, in case of refusal or delay. Struck with terror, John first offered to refer all differences to the Pope alone, or to eight barons, four to be chosen by himself, and four by the confederates. This the barons scornfully rejected (Jan. 1215). To gain time, John then assured them that he would submit at dis-

171. How did John render himself the detestation of all mankind? Who now formed a confederacy against him? What did the barons demand? Whom did they appoint their general, and what was his title? By what means did the barons compel John to accede to their requests?



cretion; and that it was his supreme pleasure to grant all their demands," fixing the following Easter for the final settlement of their differences.

172. *Magna Charta obtained*, 1215.—In Easter week, the barons, followed by 2000 knights and an immense host of armed retainers, met at Stamford and proceeded to the neighbourhood of Oxford, where archbishop Langton and the earls of Pembroke and Warrenne, presented to the king a schedule containing the list of their demands. As soon as John glanced over the parchment, he exclaimed, with a scornful sneer, "Why do they not demand my crown also? By God's teeth, I will not give them such grants as will make me nothing but a slave!" The legate Pandulph now interposed on behalf of John, and proposed that Langton should excommunicate the confederated nobles; but the heroic primate, instead of complying, threatened to excommunicate John's foreign mercenaries unless they were dismissed the kingdom. The king's obstinacy occasioned another delay; but on the barons being so powerfully reinforced by the burghers of England, as to bear down and overwhelm all resistance, John at last consented to fix a day and place for ratifying the demands of the barons. The place where both parties were to meet was a large tract of meadow land called Runnymede, taking its name from the stream that flowed through it, between Staines and Windsor, still held in reverence by posterity, as the spot where the standard of freedom was first erected in England. There the barons appeared with a vast number of knights and warriors on the 15th day of June, 1215, while those on the king's part came a day or two after. Both sides encamped apart like open enemies. The barons, determined on carrying their aims, would admit of few abatements; and the king's agents being for the most part in their interests, few debates ensued. On the 19th of June, the king, with a facility that was somewhat suspicious, signed and sealed the charter required of him; a charter which continues in force to this day, and is that famous bulwark of English liberty, which goes by the name of MAGNA CHARTA. This lauded deed however only granted or secured freedom to those orders of the kingdom that were already possessed of freedom, namely, to the clergy, the barons, and the knights or landholders; as for the commonalty, the greatest part of the people, they were as yet held as slaves and it was long before they came to a participation of legal protection."

172. Where, and on what day, was the Charter signed which forms the bulwark of English liberty? By what name is it known in history?



173. *Magna Charta repudiated—John's Death, 1215–16.*—John could not brook the concessions extorted from his fears, he therefore took the first opportunity of denying to be in the least governed by them. He asked and obtained of the Pope a dispensation from his oath (Aug. 1215), and the excommunication of such as should remain in arms to compel him; but no bishop of England ventured to publish this sentence, which therefore remained ineffective. A second civil war followed, in which the barons were obliged to have recourse for assistance to king Philip Augustus of France, who sent over an army, on their promising to make his son Louis their king. Thus England saw nothing but a prospect of being every way undone. If John succeeded, a tyrannical and implacable monarch was to be their tormentor; if the French king should prevail, the country was ever after to submit to a more powerful monarchy, and was to become a province of France. What neither human prudence could foresee nor policy suggest, was brought about by a happy and unexpected event. Having assembled a considerable army, with a view to make one great effort for the crown, John resolved to penetrate into the heart of the kingdom. With these resolutions he departed from Lynn, which, for its fidelity, he had distinguished with many marks of favour, and directed his route towards Lincolnshire. His road lay along the shore, which was overflowed at high water; but not being apprised of this, or being ignorant of the tide of the place, he lost all his carriages, treasure, and baggage by its influx. He himself escaped with the greatest difficulty, and arrived at the abbey of Swinstead, where his grief for the loss he had sustained, and the distracted state of his affairs, threw him into a fever, which soon appeared to be fatal. Next day, being unable to ride on horseback, he was carried in a litter to the castle of Seaford, and from thence removed to Newark, where he died on the 18th of October, 1216, in the fifty-first year of his age and the eighteenth of his detested reign. Previous to his death, he appointed his eldest son Henry to succeed him, and requested to be buried in Worcester cathedral. He had two other sons, Richard and Edmund, and three daughters.

174. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—The civil war in this reign had solely for its object to obtain from the weak and unpopular John a final settlement of the conditions upon which the barons were to hold hereditarily the possessions and the poli-

173. What gave rise to a second civil war? What prevented the hostile armies from coming to an engagement? In what year of his age and reign did John die? What children did he leave behind him?



tical power then enjoyed as their share of the conquest of England. It was only indirectly that the commonalty derived any benefit whatever from Magna Charta. Indeed the traditional veneration in which it was held arose from the commonalty deriving from it liberties piecemeal, which the barons not only never intended to have conceded, but did everything in their power to withhold. Had the conditions of land-tenure established by Magna Charta been as continuously and strictly insisted upon by the crown as the landholders have collected the conditions or rents due to them by their tenants, there need not have been a national debt in this country nor one-half the taxation of the commonalty which has existed for the last two hundred years. As it is important to know the conditions on which about sixty thousand fiefs, fees, or estates of from 800 to 680 acres of land were held immediately or indirectly of the state, they may be stated to have been:—

(1). *Military Service*:—For every knight's fee, a soldier on horseback, completely armed as a knight, had to attend the sovereign to the wars for *sixty*\* days in every year, at his own expense; which attendance was one inseparable and chief condition attached to each fee or estate.

(2). *Aids*:—1, To ransom the sovereign if taken prisoner; 2, To make his eldest son a knight; 3, To give a suitable portion to his eldest daughter on her marriage; and, 4, to give such subsidies as were considered necessary by the great council and parliament.

(3). *Relief*:—Which consisted of a composition to the sovereign by the heir, when of full age, for permission to take up the estate of his ancestor. In the time of Henry II. this relief was 100 shillings for each knight's fee, or one-fourth or more of the annual value.

(4). *Primer Seisin*:—Which gave the sovereign the right to one whole year's profits of the lands from the heir in addition to the relief, if the lands were in immediate possession; and half a year's profit, if the lands were in reversion expectant on an estate for life.

(5). *Wardship*:—1. Which gave the sovereign the wardship of the heir, without being accountable for the profits, till the age of 21 in males, and 16 in females. 2. Then when the heir attained the age of 21, and the heiress that of 16, they were required to sue out their livery or *ousterlemain*, for which they were obliged to pay half a year's profits of their lands by way of fine to be put in possession.

(6). *Marriage*:—Which gave the sovereign the right of disposing of his infant ward in marriage; that was, of tendering him or her, while in ward, a suitable match; which if the wards refused, they forfeited to their guardian the value of the marriage, or what would have been *bonâ fide* given to him for such an alliance, as a jury should determine: and if the wards, after refusal of a suitable marriage, married without the consent of their guardian, then they forfeited double the value of the marriage.

(7). *Fines for Alienation*:—These were often arbitrary, and unsettled until the statute 1 Edward III., c. 12, fixed them at one third of the annual value, with a licence; and a full year's value without permission to alienate.

(8). *Escheat*:—When the tenant died without heirs of his blood, the lands reverted to the sovereign; or when the tenant was convicted of treason or felony.

Such were the conditions upon which the feudal tenants held their lands. These conditions were the price they paid for those lands; and a breach or non-performance of them was visitable with forfeiture.

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\* See ante, p. 115.



## HENRY III.

Began to reign Oct. 28th, 1216; died Nov. 16th, 1272.

175. *Animosities healed—General Amnesty.*—John's eldest son was only ten years old when the earl of Pembroke, a nobleman of great worth and valour, who had adhered to his father in all the fluctuations of his fortune, caused the infant Henry to be crowned at Gloucester on the 28th of October, 1216. Equally with most of his Norman predecessors Henry was an usurper, he having no colour of hereditary right during the life of his maiden cousin Eleanor of Brittany, who was a captive in a convent at Bristol, where she was confined until her death in 1241. Prince Louis of France soon found the infant king a more formidable adversary than his father. He became the rallying point of the national liberty, and the cause of the foreigner daily became more hopeless, until in the following September a treaty was concluded, in which Louis renounced his claim to the throne, and Henry's government promised an universal amnesty.

176. *Character of Henry III.—General Discontent.*—"The young king was of a character the very opposite to his father; as he grew up to man's estate, he was found to be gentle, merciful, and humane; he appeared easy and good-natured to his dependents; but no way formidable to his enemies. Without activity or vigour, he was unfit to conduct in war; without distrust or suspicion, he was imposed upon in times of peace. As weak princes are never without governing favourites, on the death of the wise Pembroke in 1220, he placed his affections on the grand justiciary Hubert de Burgh, and on his becoming obnoxious to the people in 1232, the place was soon supplied by Peter des Roches, bishop of Winchester, a Poictevin by birth, a man remarkable for arbitrary conduct, courage, and abilities. Henry, in pursuance of this prelate's advice, invited over a great number of Poictevins, and other foreigners, who were willing to adopt whatever schemes their employer should propose. Every office and command was bestowed on these unprincipled strangers, whose avarice and rapacity were exceeded only by their pride and insolence." Soon after the king's marriage in 1236 with Eleanor, second daughter of earl Raymont of Provence, a swarm of Provençals followed to be provided for in like manner. "So un-

175. In what year did the reign of Henry III. begin, and terminate? Who supported his claims? How old was he on his accession?

176. What was the character of Henry III.? What excited against him the jealousy of the barons?



just a partiality excited the jealousy of the barons; and they assured the king, that if he did not dismiss all foreigners from court, they would drive both him and them out of the kingdom; but their anger was scarce kept within bounds when they saw a new swarm of these intruders come over from Gascony, with Isabella, the king's mother, who had been some time before married to the count de la Marche. To these just causes of complaint were added the king's unsuccessful expeditions to the Continent, his total want of economy, and his oppressive exactions, which were but the result of the former. The kingdom therefore waited with gloomy resolution, determined to take vengeance when the general discontent arrived at maturity."

177. *Simon de Montfort*, 1258.—"This imprudent preference of foreigners, joined to a thousand other illegal evasions of justice, at last impelled Simon Montfort, earl of Leicester, to attempt an innovation in the government, and to wrest the sceptre from the feeble hand that held it. This nobleman was the son of a famous general who commanded against the Albigenses, a sect of enthusiasts that had been destroyed some time before in the kingdom of Savoy. He was himself one of the foreign chiefs who had come over and had espoused the king's sister, the countess dowager of Pembroke; and by his power and address was possessed of a strong interest in the nation, having gained equally the affections of the great and the little. The formidable confederacy which Leicester had formed first discovered itself in the great council\* held in Westminster Hall on the 2nd of May, 1258, when the barons appeared in complete armour. The king, upon his entry, asked them what was their intention; to which they submissively replied, to make him their sovereign, by confirming his power, and to have their grievances redressed. Henry, who was ready enough to promise whatever was demanded, instantly assured them of his intention to give all possible satisfaction; and, for that purpose, summoned another general council to meet at Oxford on the 11th of next June, to digest a new plan of government, and to elect proper

176. Who accompanied the king's mother from Gascony, and to whom was she there married?

177. Who attempted to wrest the sceptre from the king? Of whom was he the son, and to whom was he married? Where did the conspiracy first discover itself? Did the king oppose their wishes? For what purpose did he summon a parliament, and where did it meet?

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\* Goldsmith here incorrectly uses the word parliament. The general councils then and hitherto were assemblies only of the lords spiritual and temporal; while a parliament properly so called comprises both peers and commoners.



persons who were to be intrusted with the chief authority. This great council, afterwards called the "mad parliament," went expeditiously to work upon the business of reformation. Twenty-four barons were appointed, twelve by the king and twelve by the peers, with supreme authority, to reform the abuses of the state, and Leicester was placed at their head; subject however to their acts being controlled by a great council to be held thrice in each year. The whole state in their hands underwent a complete alteration; all its former officers were displaced; and creatures of the twenty-four barons were put into their room. Thus the nobles trampled upon the crown, and a vile oligarchy was on the point of being established."

178. *Montford Regent*, 1263.—The foreign party were naturally indignant at these portentous changes, and clamoured at the abridgment of the royal prerogative; but Leicester, who was now in effect invested with regal authority, bore so hard upon them, that the king's foreign relatives, and a throng of their friends and dependants, were glad to fly the kingdom. The champions of liberty, being now in the possession of power, fell into the natural consequences of despotism and mutual rivalry. Leicester was envied, and opposed by his colleagues, who set up against him the earl of Gloucester; and young prince Edward, who now became a busy actor on the scene, increased their dissensions by espousing the cause of the different parties, in turn. In this situation the king, who had been closely watched by Leicester, escaped from restraint in 1261, and repaired to London, which he fortified against the barons, and the great earl was obliged to fly to France. From this banishment however he was recalled by one of those strange and sudden changes which characterised the politics of this rude period. The earl of Gloucester died, and his son, instead of inheriting his feelings of rivalry, became the admirer and bosom friend of Leicester. The exile therefore returned in 1263, and through the aid of his new ally he became more powerful than ever. Henry yielded to the storm, and again promised everything, but with the resolution of breaking his promises with the first opportunity. Leicester, once more in the ascendant, forgot his moderation; he insisted that the committee of government, appointed by the parliament of Oxford for the regulation of state affairs, should continue their office not only during the life of the king, but that

177. How many barons were appointed to reform the abuses of the state? What alterations did they make?

178. How did Leicester exercise his authority? What caused the dissension in the committee of government?



of his successor; and prince Edward, who had latterly adhered to the barons, now finding his own interests aimed at, forsook their cause, and restored so much vigour to the royalists, that both parties agreed to refer their differences to Louis IX.

179. *Civil War—Battle of Lewes, 1264-5.*—On the 3rd of February, 1264, the French monarch pronounced his award, more conformable to the formalities of law, and to the scruples of a timorous conscience, than to substantial equity in the then circumstances. He enjoined submission to Henry, on condition of universal amnesty, and of the full enjoyment of all the privileges and liberties granted by Magna Charta, without however giving to the barons the means of safety; whereon the barons resolved to have recourse to arms. In point of adherents and military resources, the two parties seem to have been nearly equal. The nobles of the northern counties and the western border followed the standard of the king, while the midland counties, the south-east, the cinque ports, and the city of London, took the side of Leicester. "Prince Edward was at this time about twenty-two years of age. He had, at a very early age, given the strongest proofs of courage, of wisdom, and of constancy; the hopes which were consequently now conceived of his abilities and his integrity, rendered him an important personage in the transactions of the times, and in some measure atoned for his father's imbecility." At the opening of the campaign, the cause of the king appeared the most prosperous; but as he advanced towards the south-east, and endeavoured to withdraw the cinque ports from his antagonists, reverses began to follow. Leicester, who had been mustering his forces in London, now marched out to settle the contest by a decisive battle, and found the king disadvantageously posted in a hollow at Lewes, in Sussex. The royal banner was followed by all the foreigners that remained in England; by the houses of Bigod, Bohun, and Percy; and by the Scoto-Norman earls, Robert Bruce, John Comyn, and John Baliol. On the other side were Derby, Warrenne, Gloucester, the Despencers, and many others of noble lineage, and large estates. The battle was commenced on the part of the royalists by the young Edward, at the head of a chosen body of cavalry. Opposed to him was a strong force of the citizens of London; and the prince, burning with revenge on account of the insults which they had heaped

178. What did it lead to?

179. What was the award of king Louis? How was it received by the barons? Who now became an important person? Who were the principal partisans on each side? Where did they encounter each other?



upon his mother, attacked them with such impetuosity, that they were broken almost in an instant, chased from the field, and trampled down in heaps. The pursuit led him far from the battle, so that the foot were left unprotected, and Leicester profited by the opportunity to make a concentrated attack upon the main body of the royal army. The king's forces, after a short and unequal struggle, were completely beaten; the king and his brother Richard, king of the Romans, were taken prisoners, along with John Comyn and Robert Bruce; and when Edward returned from his rash pursuit, he found the field covered with dead, and his father a captive. He had no time even to deplore the effects of his impetuosity, for he was suddenly charged by a strong body of horse, and made prisoner. In this battle, which was fought on the 14th of May, 1265, more than 5000 Englishmen fell.

180. *First actual Parliament, 1265.*—"With all these advantages, however, Leicester still dreaded the combinations of foreign states against him, as well as internal machinations, and was obliged to have recourse to an aid till now entirely unknown in England, namely, that of the whole body of the people." He directed writs in the king's name, still extant and the earliest of the kind known to us, directing to meet at London on the 22nd of January, 1265, a few of the barons of his own party\* and several ecclesiastics, who were not immediate tenants of the crown; and also ordered the sheriffs to elect and return to that assemblage two knights for the body of their county, with two citizens for each city, and two burgesses for every burgh contained within it. This is the epoch or first confirmed outline of an English parliament—a convention of the three estates of the realm, the lords spiritual and temporal and the commons. "Many of the barons who had hitherto stedfastly adhered to Leicester, now appeared disgusted at his immoderate ambition, and at his liberal concessions in order to gain popularity; and even many of the people, who found that a change of masters was not a change for happiness, began to wish for the re-establishment of the royal family.

179. What party was victorious? Who were taken prisoners?

180. What induced Leicester to apply to the people? What part of the British legislature had its origin in that measure? What disgusted the barons at Leicester? How had he treated prince Edward?

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\* Until this time every tenant-in-chief of the king, and none others, appears to have had the right to attend the great council or king's court. After the battle of Evesham, when the baronial influence was subdued, Henry followed Montfort's precedent, and selected for the following parliament only such of the peers as he thought proper, alleging that those who had been in arms against him and their favourers, were not fit to be summoned to his councils. Hence arose the law that the king's writ of summons constituted a peer, and not the circumstance of holding land of him in chief.



Leicester finding himself unable to oppose the concurring wishes of the nation, resolved to make a merit of what he could not prevent; and he accordingly released prince Edward from confinement, and had him introduced to Westminster-hall, where his freedom was confirmed by the unanimous voice of the barons. But though Leicester had all the popularity of restoring the prince, yet he was politic enough to keep him still guarded by his emissaries, who watched all his motions."

181. *Battle of Evesham—Death of Montfort, 1265.*—In the meantime, by one of those jealousies which are incident to civil war, the earl of Gloucester became impatient of the ascendant of his imperious colleague, who in effect governed the realm. "On hearing that Gloucester was up in arms against Leicester, prince Edward thereon took an opportunity to escape from his guards, and put himself at the head of his party. A battle soon after ensued; but the earl's army having been exhausted by famine on the mountains of Wales, were but ill able to sustain the impetuosity of young Edward's attack, who bore down upon them with incredible fury. During this terrible day, Leicester behaved with astonishing intrepidity; and kept up the spirit of the action from two o'clock in the afternoon till nine at night. At last, his horse being killed under him, he was compelled to fight on foot; and though he demanded quarter, the adverse party refused it, with a barbarity common enough in the times we are describing. The old king, who was placed in the front of the battle, was soon wounded in the shoulder; and not being known by his friends, he was on the point of being killed by a soldier; but crying out, "I am Henry of Winchester, the king," he was saved by a knight of the royal army. Prince Edward hearing the voice of his father, instantly ran to the spot where he lay, and had him conducted to a place of safety. The body of Leicester being found among the dead, was barbarously mangled by one Roger Mortimer; and then, with an accumulation of inhumanity, sent to the wretched widow, as a testimony of the royal party's success." This decisive and sanguinary battle, which replaced the sceptre in Henry's hands, was fought at Evesham on the 6th of August, 1265.

180. Of what did he now attempt to make a merit?

181. Who took up arms in the cause of Edward? What was the conduct of Edward in the engagement which ensued, and on what side did he fight? What was the conduct and fate of Leicester? Where was the king posted in the battle, and what saved his life? Who gained the victory?



182. *The Leicesterites proscribed—Death of Henry III.*—The cause for which Leicester fought and died was not buried in his grave (*see* § 188). However the nobles might envy his superiority, they were not disposed to barter their liberty as the price of revenge; and therefore even before they joined the cause of prince Edward, they obliged him to swear that he would observe the charters, govern according to law, and banish the foreign favourites. But if these important points were conceded, the private revenge of the royalists was amply gratified by a merciless proscription of the family and partisans of Leicester, whose lands were confiscated and distributed among them; upon which the latter took up arms in self-defence, so that the war was resumed for two years; and little could be accomplished until the royal party relaxed, and admitted their opponents to easy terms. The country was so completely tranquillised after this period that, in 1270, prince Edward “resolved upon taking the cross, which was at that time the highest object of human ambition. Accordingly he sailed from England to take part in *the eighth and last crusade* with a large army, and arrived at the camp of Louis IX. of France, which lay before Tunis; and where he had the misfortune to hear of that good monarch’s death before his arrival. The prince, however, no way discouraged by this event, continued his voyage, and arrived at the Holy Land in safety. He however was scarce departed upon this pious expedition, when the health of the old king began to decline; and he found not only his own constitution, but also that of the state, in such a dangerous situation, that he wrote letters to his son, pressing him to return with all dispatch. At last, being overcome by the cares of government, and the infirmities of age, he ordered himself to be removed, by easy journeys, from St. Edmund’s to Westminster, and expired that same night, the 16th of November, 1272, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the fifty-sixth of his reign, the longest hitherto to be met with in the annals of England.” Of Henry’s children two sons and two daughters survived him. Edward, the elder son, succeeded to his crown, and the younger, Edmund, obtained the forfeited estates of the Montforts. The daughters were Margaret queen of Scotland, and Beatrix duchess of Bretagne.

183. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—The great event in Henry’s long reign of fifty-seven years, immeasurably more important than the admission of representatives of the

182. What measures were adopted by the king’s advisers after the battle of Evesham? Where did the king breathe his last? In what year of his life and reign did he die?



commons into the council of the nation, was the quasi-enfranchisement of the villains attached to manors, the agricultural bondmen of the lords. These, the most numerous class of the population, were held by the king's courts of law to have acquired by the great charter,\* in like manner as the lords themselves, a hereditary estate in the land allotted to them whereon to raise sustenance for themselves and families, so long as they rendered the customary services hitherto required of them. These peasant estates came to be called *copyholds*, because they were no longer held *at the will of the lord*, but according to the customary services as particularised in the court-roll of manors, a copy of which the villains were entitled to receive. By this great measure more than one-third of the then cultivated land of England became the legal property of the manorial serfs in estates of from 15 to 30 or more acres. Although however the vegetable and animal produce of their lands were thenceforth their own, still their lords continued to be the proprietors of their children, whose freedom had to be obtained either by purchase or by their absconding and concealing themselves in a king's city or town for *a year and a day*, another merciful deliverance of the king's court of law. The establishment of copyholds is the point of time from which the commonalty of England started into new life, the copyholders becoming the progenitors of the energetic and independent population, who became the glory of their country. As the services and rents payable from the lords of manors to the crown under Magna Charta have been particularised (§ 174), the following may be taken as an illustration of the services and rents payable by the customary tenants—now become copyholders—to their lords. In the manor of Ketteringham, Northamptonshire, there were forty copyholders who occupied thirty-four yard-lands,† and paid at Christmas and Easter one shilling for each yard-land. They were also obliged for each yard-land to send one labourer to work for the benefit of the lord two days in every week through the year, excepting a fortnight at Christmas, a week at Easter, and another at Whitsuntide. The work to be done in each year by these forty copyholders was to fallow 100 acres and crop 200 acres, such as to plough, and sow with grain supplied by the lord, to harrow, weed, mow or reap, gather, bind, and carry to the lord's barns the crop of the said 200 acres of the lord's demesne.

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### EDWARD I., SURNAMED LONGSHANKS.

Began to reign Nov. 20th, 1272 ;—died July 7th, 1307.

184. *The direct Succession restored.*—As prince Edward, surnamed Longshanks from the disproportionate length of

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\* By clause 60, "All these customs and liberties aforesaid, which are here granted to be held in our kingdom, for so much of it as belongs to us, all our subjects, as well clergy as laity, shall observe towards their tenants as far as concerns them." There is a similar clause in the charter of Henry I., but there is no trace that it was made applicable to villain enfranchisement until the reign of Henry III.

† A yard-land was the quantity of land held by villains, which varied in different manors. In Wimbleton in Surrey, it was only 15 acres ; but in manors in other counties it was 20, 24, 30, and 40 or more acres.



his legs, eldest son of Henry III., was now the direct heir to the throne since the death of the captive maiden Eleanor of Brittany, the opposite interests were proportionately feeble, and the crown was assigned to him during his absence in Palestine with the greatest unanimity. The barons were exhausted by long and mutual dissensions; the clergy were divided in their interests, and agreed only in one point, to hate the Pope, who had for some time drained them with impunity: the people, by some insurrections against the convents, appeared to hate the clergy with equal animosity. These disagreeing orders only concurred in one point, that of esteeming and reverencing their chivalrous king. Until the king's return, the administration of government was carried on, with the consent of the peers, by the archbishop of Canterbury, and the earls of Cornwall and of Gloucester.

185. *Edward's Crusade, 1274.*—Louis IX. of France having perished before the walls of Tunis, with the greatest part of his army, before the arrival of Edward, he was left to prosecute the arduous undertaking with a force that was little more than a military train. He however determined to proceed to Acre, where he landed with no more than 1000 men; but the memory of Lion-hearted Richard was still fresh among the Moslems, and in Edward they soon found a hero almost equal to him in personal prowess, and superior in military skill. The same love of bloodshed distinguished the last, as it had done the first of the crusaders, and the Mahomedans were slaughtered without mercy whenever success gave the Christian soldiers an opportunity. Although Edward had never been able to gather from the wrecks of the former crusades above 6000 auxiliaries, still with this handful he chased the sultan of Babylon from Acre, stormed the city of Nazareth, and kept the Turks in perpetual alarm. "To rid themselves of so terrible an adversary, they had recourse at last to the weapon of an assassin, who, under pretence of carrying a message from the emir of Jaffa, gained access to the prince's tent, and stabbed him with a poisoned dagger, as he was one day sitting in his tent, and was cured not without great difficulty. Some say that he owed his safety to the piety of his wife, Eleanor, daughter of Ferdinand IV. of Spain, who sucked the poison from the wound to save his life, at the hazard of her own." As nothing further could be done for the recovery of Jerusalem, Edward concluded a truce with

184. What right had Edward to the throne? Where was he on the death of his father? What was the then state of parties? Who were appointed to carry on the government?

185. What occurred in Edward's crusade?



the enemy, and set sail for Sicily, on his return to England. In Calabria he received tidings of his father's death; but so confident was he of the tranquillity which now prevailed in England, that instead of returning thither immediately, he made a tour through Italy. Crossing the Alps, he proceeded to Paris, and landed in England on the 2nd of August, 1274, and on the 19th he was crowned, together with queen Eleanor, in Westminster Abbey.

186. *First true Parliament, 1275.*—Edward held his first great council in the third year of his reign (1275) for reforming the abuses that had accumulated in the unsettled reign of his imbecile father. Following the precedent of Montfort in 1265 and of his father after the battle of Evesham, Edward summoned to his first parliament\* only such of his peers as he thought proper; and it is certain from documents still extant that knights, citizens, and burgesses were component members of it. This assembly is therefore taken to be the first legally constituted, or *the first true Parliament*. Edward I. held during his reign about eleven other similarly-constituted parliaments; from which arose the law that the king's writ of summons constituted a peer of parliament, and not the circumstance of holding lands of him in-chief, as had been the case down to 1265; and that representatives of the freeholders in the counties and of the commonalty of the cities and boroughs should also be members thereof.

187. *Conquest of Wales, 1277-84.*—Edward's whole ideas were of an ambitious and military character; "but instead of thirsting for unprofitable foreign acquisitions, his great aim was to reduce the whole island of Britain into one compact monarchy. It was for this purpose that he carefully husbanded all his great resources; and Wales was selected as the weakest point at which the great work of conquest should commence. The primitive and gallant race of this little principality were the remains of the ancient Britons, who had escaped the Roman and Saxon invasions, and still preserved their freedom and their country uncontaminated by the admission of foreign conquerors. But as they were, from their number, incapable of withstanding their more powerful neighbours on the plain, their chief defence lay in their inac-

186. When was the first *true* parliament held? Why was it so called? Of whom was it composed?

187. What event rendered Edward's life so celebrated? Describe the character and practices of the Welsh.

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\* The term *parliament* did not come into use until the end of the reign of Henry III.



cessible mountains, those natural bulwarks of the country. Whenever England was distressed by factions at home, or its forces called off to wars abroad, the Welsh made it a constant practice to pour in their irregular troops, and lay the open country waste wherever they came. To prevent these incursions for the future, Edward had summoned Llewellyn to appear at his coronation to do homage for his territories: which summons the Welsh prince refused to obey. The king was not displeased at this refusal. He thereon levied an army, and marched into his country in 1277. Upon the approach of Edward, the Welsh prince took refuge among the inaccessible mountains of Snowdon, and there resolved to maintain his ground. These were the steep retreats that had for many ages before defended his ancestors against all the attempts of the Saxon and Norman conquerors. But Edward, equally vigorous and cautious, having explored every part of his way, pierced into the very centre of Lewellyn's territories, and approached the Welsh army in its last retreats. Here, after extorting submission from the Welsh prince, the king retired. But an idle prophecy, in which it was foretold, by Merlin, that Lewellyn was to be the restorer of Brutus's empire in Britain, was an inducement sufficiently strong to persuade this prince to revolt once more, and hazard a decisive battle against the English. With this view he marched into Radnorshire; and passing the river Wey, his troops were surprised and defeated by Edward Mortimer, while he himself was absent. Upon his return, seeing the dreadful situation of his affairs, he ran desperately into the midst of the enemy, and quickly found that death he so ardently sought for (1282). David, the brother of this unfortunate prince, was soon after made prisoner; tried before an English parliament at Shrewsbury; convicted by them of high treason for the defence of his country; and drawn asunder by horses! With him expired the government, and the distinction of the Welsh nation (1283). It was soon after united to the kingdom of England, made a principality, and settled upon Edward's first son, who was born at this time in the castle of Carnarvon, and the future heirs of the crown (1284). Foreign conquest might add to the glory, but this added to the felicity of the kingdom. The Welsh were now blended

187. Whom did Edward order to do homage for his territories? What was the consequence of his refusal? To what did Lewellyn trust for his defence? By what means did the king compel him to submit? What induced the Welsh prince again to take up arms? What was his fate, and that of his brother? Who now bears the title of Prince of Wales?



with the conquerors; and, in the revolution of a few ages, all national animosity was entirely forgotten."

188. *Edward invades Scotland*.—"Soon after, the death of Margaret queen of Scotland, daughter of Eric king of Norway, and only grandchild of Alexander III., the last monarch of Celtic dynasty of unknown antiquity, gave him hopes of adding also Scotland to his dominions. The death of this princess, known in ancient verses as 'The Fair Maid of Norway,' produced a most ardent dispute about the succession to the Scottish throne, which was claimed by no less than twelve competitors. These candidates were however reduced to the descendants of the three daughters of earl David of Huntingdon, brother to William the Lion, king of Scotland, while two only had specious claims: John Baliol lord of Galloway, and Robert Bruce lord of Annandale—both among the most potent of the Anglo-Norman barons who had settled in Scotland. John Baliol was descended from the eldest daughter, while Robert Bruce was the actual son of the second daughter. Baliol was, on the modern principle of representation, the undisputed heir. Bruce claimed as being one degree nearer of kin to the common ancestor; a title which was probably thought at that time not untenable. This dispute being referred to Edward's decision, with a strong degree of assurance, he claimed the crown for himself, and appointed Baliol his deputy (1292). Baliol being thus placed upon the Scottish throne, less as a king than as a vassal, Edward's first step was sufficient to convince that people of his intentions to stretch the prerogative to the utmost. Upon the most frivolous pretences, he sent six different summonses for Baliol to appear in London, at different times in one year; so that the poor Scottish king soon perceived that he was possessed of the name only, but not the authority of a sovereign. Willing, therefore, to shake off the yoke of so troublesome a master, Baliol revolted, and procured the Pope's absolution from his former oath of homage (1295). But no power the Scots could bring into the field was able to withstand the victorious army of Edward. He overthrew their forces in many engagements, and thus becoming undisputed master of the kingdom,

187. What advantages resulted from the union of Wales with England?

188. What event induced Edward to covet the kingdom of Scotland? How many competitors were there for the Scottish crown? To whom was David earl of Huntingdon, the brother? On what did John Baliol found his claim? On what pretence did Robert Bruce oppose him? To whom was this dispute referred, and what was the decision? How did Edward treat Baliol, and what was the result of that treatment? Was Baliol successful in taking up arms against Edward?



he took every precaution to secure his title, and to abolish those distinctions which might be apt to keep the nation in its former independence. Baliol was carried a prisoner to London; and Edward carefully destroyed all records and monuments of antiquity, that inspired the Scots with a spirit of national pride (1296)."

189. *Warfare Burthensome — First legal Parliament, 1298.* — "These expeditions however terminated rather in glory than advantage; the expenses which were requisite for carrying on the war were not only burthensome to the king, but even, in the event, threatened to shake him on his throne. In order at first to set the great machine in movement, he raised considerable supplies by means of his parliament; and that august body was then generally modelled by him on the principle of Montford's parliament in 1258, the form in which it continues to this day. As property became, by the introduction of commerce and the improvement of agriculture, generally diffused among the commonalty of the kingdom, so their consent was now thought necessary for the raising any considerable supplies. For this reason, Edward issued writs to the sheriffs, enjoining them to elect and to send to parliament, along with two knights of the shire (as in the former reign), two deputies from each city and borough within their county; and these provided with sufficient power from their constituents to grant such demands as they should think reasonable for the safety of the state. One of the first efforts of this first *legal* parliament, therefore, was to oblige the king's council to sign the Magna Charta, and to add a clause, to secure the nation for ever against all impositions and taxes without the consent of parliament (1298). This the king's council (for Edward was at that time in Flanders) readily agreed to sign; and the king himself, when it was sent over to him at Ghent, after some hesitation thought proper to do the same (Nov. 5, 1298). These concessions he again confirmed upon his return; and though it is probable he was averse to granting them, yet he was at last brought to give a plenary consent to all the articles that were demanded of him. Thus, after the contest of an age, the Magna Charta was finally established; nor was it the least circumstance in its favour, that its confirmation was procured from one of the greatest and boldest princes that ever swayed the English sceptre."

188. What did Edward destroy? What stimulated him to that act of barbarism?

189. How did Edward raise money? Upon what principle was it established? How had the people acquired property and power? What was the king obliged to sign?



190. *Wallace — Second Invasion of Scotland — Battle of Falkirk, 1298.*—To understand the facility with which this conquest had been accomplished, we must recollect that the Norman nobility of Scotland had not yet acquired very strong feelings of exclusive patriotism for their adopted country, while many of them, holding possessions in both kingdoms, considered themselves as much the lieges of Edward as of the Scottish crown. Besides this, there was a violent scramble among the most distinguished of their body for the vacant throne, and they could only accomplish their selfish purposes by following the banner of Edward. It was thus that a brave and patriotic people were sacrificed by their leaders, until they saw there was no hope of deliverance from their nobility. But in this dark hour, a champion emerged from their own order, to point the way to freedom, in the person of Sir William Wallace. This great national hero and patriot was the second son of Sir Malcolm Wallace, of Ellerslie, in Renfrewshire, and possessed all the great qualities that fitted him to be a popular leader. He was a man of gigantic stature, incredible strength, and amazing intrepidity; eagerly desirous of independence, and possessed with the most disinterested spirit of patriotism. To this man had resorted all those who were obnoxious to the English government; the proud, the bold, the ambitious, and the criminal. These, bred among dangers and hardships themselves, could not forbear admiring in their leader a degree of patience, under fatigue and famine, which they supposed beyond the power of human nature to endure; he soon, therefore, became the principal object of their affection and their esteem. His first exploits were confined to petty ravages, and occasional attacks upon the English; but he soon overthrew the English armies, and slew their generals. Edward, who had been over in Flanders while these misfortunes happened in England, hastened back with impatience to restore his authority, and secure his former conquests. He quickly levied the whole force of his dominions; and at the head of 100,000 men directed his march to the north, fully resolved to take vengeance upon the Scots. A battle was fought at Falkirk in 1298, at which Edward gained a complete victory, leaving twelve thousand of the Scots, or, as some will have it, fifty thousand, dead upon the field.

191. *Third Invasion of Scotland — Death of Wallace, 1302-5* —“The battle of Falkirk, so disastrously dreadful, had not as

190. Relate the history of the celebrated Sir William Wallace. Where did Edward gain a complete victory over him?



yet entirely crushed the spirit of the Scots nation ; and after a short interval, they began to breathe from their calamities. Wallace, who had gained all their regards by his valour, showed that he still merited them more by his declining the rewards of ambition. Perceiving how much he was envied by the nobility, and knowing how prejudicial that envy would prove to the interests of his country, he resigned the regency of the kingdom, and humbled himself to a private station." The archbishop of St. Andrew's, Bruce earl of Carrick, and Comyn earl of Badenoch, were chosen guardians of the kingdom, which they administered in the name of Baliol. "Comyn, as general-in-chief, soon began to annoy the enemy ; and not content with a defensive war, made incursions into the southern counties of the kingdom, which Edward had imagined wholly subdued. He attacked an army of English lying at Roslin, near Edinburgh, and gained a complete victory (1302). But it was not easy for any circumstances of bad fortune to repress the enterprising spirit of Edward. He assembled a great fleet and army ; and entering the frontiers of Scotland, appeared with a force which the enemy could not think of resisting in the open field (1303). Assured of success, he marched along, and traversed the kingdom from one end to the other, ravaging the open country, taking all the castles, and receiving the submissions of all the nobles. There seemed to remain only one obstacle to the final destruction of the Scottish monarchy, and that was William Wallace, who still continued refractory ; and wandering with a few forces from mountain to mountain, preserved his native independence and usual good fortune. But even their feeble hopes from him were soon disappointed ; he was betrayed into the king's hands by Sir John Monteith, his friend, whom he had made acquainted with the place of his concealment, being surprised by him as he lay asleep at Robroyston, near Glasgow. Edward, willing to strike the Scots with an example of severity, ordered him to be conducted in chains to London, where he was hanged, drawn, and quartered, with the most brutal ferocity (1305)." After which Edward proceeded to frame a constitution for Scotland, as the conquest was completed.

191. Did that defeat crush the spirit of the Scottish nation? Why did Wallace resign the regency of the kingdom? Whom did he recommend to supply his place? Where did the Scots gain a complete victory over the English? Who betrayed Wallace into the hands of Edward? What sentence did the ferocious Edward pronounce on this distinguished patriot?



192. *Robert Bruce earl of Carrick—Murders Comyn.*—Never was calculation more erroneous. A second Wallace started from the ashes of the first—one too who had not to labour under the obloquy of inferior rank, which had so impeded the efforts of the former. Robert Bruce, the grandson of the competitor of Baliol, now a young man in his 23rd year, had hitherto been distinguished only by levity and reckless enterprise; and although he had twice espoused the cause of Wallace, he had as often deserted it, to follow the standard of Edward. This doubtless arose from Wallace having always exercised his command in the name of Baliol, for whose interests the young Bruce could not feel much sympathy. But when he finally saw the ambition of Edward, he resolved to make an effort for the liberation of his country. He opened his mind to earl Comyn, of Badenoch, who by marriage inherited all the claims of the house of Baliol, and made to him it is said this amicable proposal: “Support my title to the throne of Scotland, and I will surrender to you my patrimonial estates; or give me your family possessions, and I will support your claim to the crown.” This peaceful compromise seemed agreeable to Comyn, who at once waived his own claims in favour of his rival, and engaged to support him with all his adherents; upon which Bruce returned to London. But Comyn betrayed the whole plan to king Edward, who resolved immediately to apprehend Bruce. This was frustrated by the friendly hint of the earl of Gloucester, who sent him a purse of money and a pair of spurs, under pretence of repaying a loan. Bruce knew that this was a signal to mount and ride; and without wasting a moment, he was in the saddle, and on the way to Scotland. When he came near the Solway Sands, it is said that he met a messenger of Comyn, bearing expresses to the king of England; and Bruce, whose suspicions were now awakened, slew the courier, and opened the letters, in which he found that his rival had betrayed the whole plot, and recommended that he should be put to death. Bruce proceeded to Dumfries, where the English were holding a high court, and invited Comyn to an interview in the church of the Friars Minorite. The traitor unsuspectingly came, and there Bruce upbraided him with his treachery. A quarrel was the consequence, and Bruce dispatched Comyn with a stroke of his dagger (Feb. 1305-6).

193. *Bruce crowned at Scone—Fourth Invasion of Scotland, 1306.*—If Bruce at this time required further decision of character, such an event was sufficient to make him steadfast.

192. Who was Robert Bruce? What is stated of his character? What agreement did he make with Comyn? What followed?



By the death of Comyn he had hurled a mortal defiance at the king of England, and provoked a deadly feud with the whole rival family; by despatching him in a sacred place, he had provoked the whole power of the church, and incurred the censure of excommunication. There was no alternative between a throne and a scaffold, and at the head of a few brave friends he repaired to Scone near Perth, and was there crowned on the 27th of March, 1306. Even after this event only a few warriors repaired to his standard, as his case was considered desperate, and his first attempt against the English was signally unsuccessful. However, this unexpected revolution in Scotland almost excited Edward to madness. "Having twice conquered the kingdom and received the most humble submission, the old king saw that his whole work was to begin afresh; and that nothing but the final destruction of the inhabitants would give him assurance of tranquillity. As no difficulties could repress the ardent spirit of this monarch, even though now verging towards his sixty-ninth year, he yet resolved to strike a parting blow and to make the Scots once more tremble at his appearance. He vowed revenge against the whole nation; and averred, that nothing but reducing them to the completest bondage could satisfy his resentment. He summoned his prelates, nobility, and all who held by knights' service, to meet him at Carlisle, which was appointed as the general rendezvous; and in the meantime he detached a body of forces before him to Scotland, under the command of Aymer de Valence, Henry de Percy, and Robert de Clifford, who began the threatened infliction by a complete victory over Bruce at Methven in Perthshire, on the 4th of June, 1306. Immediately after this dreadful blow, the resentful king appeared in person, entering Scotland with his army divided into two parts, and expecting to find, in the opposition of the people, a pretext for punishing them. But this brave prince, who was never cruel but from motives of policy, could not strike the poor submitting natives who made no resistance. His anger was disappointed in their humiliation; and he was ashamed to extirpate those who only opposed patience to his indignation." He however put to death all the Scots nobles who fell into his hands, confiscated their lands and distributed them among his barons. The adventures of Bruce and his little band at this time resemble more the wonders of a romance, than the incidents of sober history: they wandered among the highlands, or the isles, exposed to all the sufferings that

193. Where and when was Bruce crowned? What followed? How was the campaign of 1306 terminated?



famine or their enemies could inflict; and Bruce himself was often hunted for days with bloodhounds among the mountains, and compelled alternately to struggle for life against overwhelming multitudes in the field, and the weapon of the assassin in his concealment. A formal sentence of excommunication was at the same time pronounced against the fugitive Bruce by the papal legate, with all the terrific pomp with which Rome knew how to volley her thunders. These proceedings being ended, the aged and infirm Edward returned to Carlisle there to remain during the winter of 1306-7.

194. *Bruce's Successes—Death of Edward I.*—With the first return of spring, the dauntless and heroic Bruce made a descent on the isle of Arran, for the purpose of passing over to the mainland, and his first success was the surprisal of his own castle of Tumberry, which was held by a numerous garrison of the English. After this, Sir James Douglas, the brave adherent of Bruce, surprised and destroyed Douglas Castle. Bruce drove his old enemy, the earl of Pembroke, out of Ayrshire. Then followed the battle of Loudon-hill, in which the earl was completely routed. A few days after, the earl of Gloucester suffered a similar defeat, and fled to the castle of Ayr, in which Pembroke had also taken refuge. These and other successes so animated the hearts of the Scots, that they flocked to the standard of their king, while the English garrisons trembled within their walls, and knew not upon what quarter the storm might first alight. The sufferings of the dying Edward were greatly increased by these disasters and by a sense of the folly, the unworthiness, and utter incapacity of his son and successor, the prince of Wales. He however roused himself for the emergency, and commanded all the forces of the kingdom to again assemble at Carlisle. Animated by the hope of vengeance, when the Scottish hills were in view he hung up the horse-litter in which he had travelled in the cathedral, mounted his war-horse, and proceeded northward. But this was his last effort, for he had only reached Burgh-on-the-Sands, a few miles beyond Carlisle, when he expired in his tent on the 7th of July (1307), in the sixty-ninth year of his age and thirty-fifth of his reign. Among his last charges to his son he ordered that his heart should be sent to the Holy Land, for the deliverance of which he had fought; and that his skeleton, after

194. What happened in the spring of 1307? What measures did Edward then take? What event prevented that invasion? What did Edward make his son swear to do? In what year of his life and reign did he die?



his flesh had been boiled from the bones, should be carried at the head of the army, until Scotland was completely subdued—all which prince Edward most solemnly swore to perform. He was twice married; first to Eleanor of Castile, and nine years after her death to Margaret of France. Eleanor was a most exemplary wife, and an excellent woman. She died near Lincoln in 1290, from whence the king accompanied the corpse to London. At every place where it rested for a night, a magnificent cross was afterwards erected, some of which are still existing: one son, Edward II., and seven daughters by Eleanor survived him; and two sons, Thomas and Edmund, and one daughter by Margaret of France. Edward I. left behind him a character for military skill and political sagacity, as well as unscrupulous, unsparing ambition, which no king of England has ever surpassed.

195. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). Edward's continuous wars involved him in such enormous expense that he frequently resorted to oppressive measures, more particularly towards the clergy. These exactions at last induced them to solicit protection of Pope Boniface VIII., who published a bull forbidding the clergy to grant their revenues to laymen without the permission of the Holy See, also authorising the excommunication of those who exacted and those who contributed. Whereupon Edward obtained the assent of parliament to outlaw the clergy and to take possession of all their lay property. This proceeding obliged them to submit to contribute to the expenses of the state equally with the laity. Edward also exacted the utmost services and customary payments due from the land-tenants to the crown; while taxes were imposed on agriculture and commerce.

(2). Although often severe, Edward did not permit oppression in others. In his reign several judges who had become rich by taking bribes, were punished by fine and dismissed. The police of the kingdom was also much improved, so that travelling became safer and property in general more secure. His improvements in the laws and in their administration were so numerous that he has been called the English Justinian.

(3). Edward I. appears to have been only unjust from necessity. It was doubtless to appease the clamours of his barons that he assented in 1285 to the celebrated statute *De donis conditionalibus*, which was intended to have the twofold object of perpetuating their possessions in their own families, and of impeding the manumission of the villains by prohibiting lords of manors from selling parcels thereof, a contract between a lord and his villain being held in law to be an act of manumission. The impolicy of this statute however soon became so manifest that its evasion was favoured by the king's courts of law, so that the creation of *free* tenants and manumission still went on. This beneficent procedure was again, in 1289, sought to be impeded by the statute *Quia emplores*, which put a stop to the further erection of manors, and declared that no villain could become a customary tenant or copyholder (§ 183) who had not held or succeeded to his occupancy before the accession of Edward I. (1372). Nothing is more certain than that the nobles of England as strenuously resisted the manumission of their



bondmen, as did the West-India planters the emancipation of their negro slaves.

(4.) The manumission of the villains was also greatly promoted in the reign of Edward I. by their being extensively employed in his wars, receiving his pay being held an act of manumission, as all were free-men who bore arms in the king's service. It was this prerogative which enabled him and his successors quickly to collect an army of sturdy archers and infantry, chiefly of runaway serfs. Then as armies were generally disbanded at the close of each campaign, it must be evident that the king's military service afforded great facility for villain manumission.

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## EDWARD II., SURNAMED OF CAERNARVON.

Began to reign July 7th, 1307;—died Sept. 21st, 1327.

196. *Character of Edward II.—Piers Gavestone, 1307.*—“Edward, first Anglo-Norman Prince of Wales, was in the twenty-third year of his age when he succeeded his father; of an agreeable figure, of a mild harmless disposition, and apparently addicted to few vices. But he soon gave symptoms of his unfitness to succeed so great a monarch as his father; he was rather fond of the enjoyment of his power than of securing it; and lulled by the flattery of his courtiers, he thought he had done enough for glory, when he had accepted the crown. Instead, therefore, of prosecuting the war against Scotland, according to the injunctions he had received from his dying father, he took no steps to check the progress of Bruce; the fifth invasion of that country was therefore rather a military pageantry than a warlike expedition. As weak monarchs are ever governed by favourites, Edward's first favourite was Piers Gavestone, the son of a Gascon knight, who had been employed in the service of the late king. This young man was adorned with every accomplishment of person and mind that were capable of creating affection; but he was utterly destitute of those qualities of heart and understanding that serve to procure esteem. He was handsome, witty, brave, and active; but then he was vicious, effeminate, debauched, and trifling. These were qualities entirely adapted to the taste of the young monarch, and he seemed to think no rewards equal to his deserts.” He raised him to the royal dignity of earl of Cornwall, loaded him with manors in every part of the coun-

196. In what years did the reign of Edward II. commence and terminate? What was his character? To what had his father enjoined him? Did he comply with his father's request? Who became his favourite? What was his character?



try, made him lord chamberlain, and gave him one of his nieces in marriage. "Gavestone, intoxicated with his power, became haughty and overbearing, and treated the English nobility, from which it is probable he received marks of contempt, with scorn and derision."

197. *Edward's Marriage—Gavestone banished.*—In January, 1308, Edward crossed over to Boulogne, and there did homage for Guienne to Philip IV., and married his daughter Isabella, the greatest beauty of her age. He then returned to England with a numerous retinue invited to witness his coronation, which was performed with great pomp at Westminster on the 22nd of February, 1308. At this ceremony such marked preference was shown to Gavestone, and such want of attention to the English nobles, that three days after the barons presented a petition for his immediate banishment. Edward then laughed at them; but when the parliament assembled, the demand was made in such a manner that refusal was impossible: Gavestone was then sent out of the kingdom, only however to assume the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland, where he displayed the magnificence of a prince.

198. *Gavestone executed, 1312.*—"A conspiracy, therefore, was soon formed against him, at the head of which were his Queen Isabella and his uncle the earl of Lancaster, son of Henry III., a nobleman of great power. It was easy to perceive, that a combination of the nobles, while the queen secretly assisted their designs, would be too powerful against the efforts of a weak king and a vain favourite. The king, timid and wavering, banished him at their solicitation (1309), and recalled him soon after. This was sufficient to spread an alarm over the whole kingdom; all the great barons flew to arms, and the earl of Lancaster put himself at the head of this irresistible confederacy. The unhappy Edward, instead of attempting to make resistance, sought only for safety: ever happy in the company of his favourite, he embarked at Tinmouth, and sailed with him to Scarborough, where he left Gavestone as in a place of safety, and then went back to York himself, either to raise an army to oppose his enemies, or, by his presence, to allay their animosity. In the meantime, Gavestone was besieged in Scarborough, and obliged to surrender to the earl of Pembroke, who ordered

196. How did Gavestone treat the nobility?

197. Who did Edward marry? What occurred at his coronation? How did he deal with the demand of parliament?

198. What was the consequence of Gavestone's haughtiness? Who were at the head of the conspiracy against him? Who accompanied him to Scarborough? On what terms did he surrender?



him to be conducted to the castle of Deddington, near Banbury, where he purposely left him with a feeble guard, which the earl of Warwick having information of, he attacked the castle and quickly made himself master of Gavestone. The earls of Lancaster, Hereford, and Arundel, were soon apprised of Warwick's success and informed that their common enemy was now in custody in Warwick Castle. Thither they hasted to hold a consultation upon the fate of their prisoner. This was of no long continuance; they unanimously resolved to put him to death, as an enemy to the kingdom, and instantly had him conveyed to a place called Blacklow-hill, within a short distance of Warwick, where a Welsh executioner, provided for that purpose, severed his head from the body" on the 19th of June, 1312, in presence of the earls of Lancaster, Hereford, and Surrey.

199. *Disasters in Scotland, 1307-14.*—These troubles in England were favourable to Bruce and the adherents of Scottish liberty, of which they were not slow to avail themselves; and castle after castle was won from the English by those heroic spirits, who now emulated each other in warlike stratagem and open daring. Perth was gallantly stormed, the king himself being the first man who plunged into the moat and scaled the walls. The brave Sir James Douglas took the strong castle of Roxburgh, by the following singular stratagem. Disguising himself and his few followers in black cloaks, on Shrove Tuesday, when the garrison were celebrating the anniversary with a copious revel, and creeping along upon their hands and knees, they appeared to the English a herd of stray cattle, and were allowed to approach the walls without suspicion. The error was only perceived when the ramparts were scaled, and the castle gates in the possession of the Scots. Randolph captured the still stronger castle of Edinburgh, with only thirty chosen soldiers, by surprising the garrison, which surrendered without waiting to discover the smallness of their assailants. But gallant deeds were not confined to knights and nobles, and the peasantry emulated their leaders in acts of equal daring. By such exploits, the English were so completely dispossessed of their fortresses in Scotland, that nothing remained of their conquest but the strong castle of Stirling, which Edward Bruce the brother of Robert, had besieged for a long time, but in vain. At length, he entered into an agreement with the English governor, Sir Philip de Moubray, that the castle should be surrendered

198. Who obtained possession of his person? What was his fate?

199. What success did the Scots obtain? What took place at Stirling?



before the ensuing feast of St. John the Baptist (June 24th), unless it was relieved by the English king. In the meantime the articles of this agreement, which Sir Philip de Moubray carried to London, composed every difference between Edward II. and his nobles.

200. *Preparations for the Relief of Stirling, 1314.*—Five times already had Scotland been fruitlessly invaded, not by engaging in pitched battles, but by distressing the English with desultory attacks, and cutting off their provisions, so that they were compelled to retreat with loss. But now the honour of England was pledged for the relief of Stirling, and the immense resources of Edward were collected for the occasion. Ninety-three great tenants of the crown brought forth their entire feudal service of cavalry, to the number of 40,000, of whom 3000 were completely clothed in steel, both horses and riders. These, together with the other levies in the counties of England and a large force brought over from Ireland, formed an army of above 100,000 soldiers. As several of the remote districts of Scotland and many of the Scottish nobility still professed allegiance to Edward, Bruce could only muster in all about 30,000 men. But his soldiers were veterans, who had fought under Wallace and himself, and had been accustomed to victory even under the most desperate circumstances. He took his station at Bannockburn, upon a piece of ground which he had carefully selected, within four miles of Stirling. His front was protected by a bog; his right wing was covered by the precipitous banks of the Bannock; and on his left, where the ground was bare, and which would have been therefore most favourable for the English cavalry, he caused pits to be dug, which were armed with pointed stakes, slightly covered with sods. These preparations having been made, Bruce waited the approach of the English army.

201. *Sixth Invasion of Scotland—Battle of Bannockburn—First Day.*—The English army confronted the Scots on the 23rd of June, having marched that morning from Falkirk. On approaching the town of Stirling, Edward detached 800 horse, to fetch a compass, and turn their flank. But Bruce, whose military eye detected the movement, exclaimed to his nephew Randolph, 'The enemy has passed your post! Ah, Randolph, a rose has fallen from your chaplet!' 'I will recover it or die,' cried the redoubtable warrior, and with a few scores of spearmen he placed himself by a rapid movement between his opponents and the town of Stirling. Thus

200. What preparations were made for the relief of Stirling?

201. What were the events of the first day's fight at Bannockburn?



interrupted, the English cavalry advanced with loose rein, expecting to trample down their handful of adversaries: but Randolph threw his men into a circle to receive the attack, the front rank kneeling, the second stooping, and the third standing upright, while three rows of spears pointed against the enemy in every direction. On seeing this small body of spearmen completely surrounded, Douglas, the noble rival of the brave Randolph, exclaimed to the king—‘I cannot stand still, and see my companion perish! let me go to the rescue, and bring him off!’ ‘No,’ cried Bruce, ‘let Randolph pay the penalty of his indiscretion: I cannot disorder my plan of battle for him.’ ‘Oh, noble king!’ cried Douglas in agony, ‘I cannot lag behind in such an extremity!’—and assuming the king’s silence for consent, he immediately spurred off with a reinforcement to the rescue. But before he had reached the conflict, the English cavalry were broken, and crowds of riderless horses were galloping wildly over the field. ‘Halt!’ shouted Douglas to his eager followers—‘We are too late to aid them, let us not lessen the glory of such a victory by our presence!’ Another event, which occurred the same evening, inspired the Scottish army with full confidence of success, notwithstanding the numbers of the enemy. Bruce was mounted upon a slightly-made Scottish pony, and riding in front of his ranks, distinguished by a small golden coronet, when Sir Henry Bohun, imagining that the war might be terminated by a single blow, set spurs to his mighty war-steed, and laid his lance in rest, expecting, from his superiority in horse and weapons, to bear the Scottish king to the earth. Bruce, who had no weapon but a short battle-axe, allowed the knight to come on; but just at the point of meeting, he swerved from the shock, and rising in his stirrups, dealt such a blow upon the crest of his antagonist, as at once dashed his helmet and head to pieces. No further encounter took place that evening.

202. *Battle of Bannockburn—Second Day.*—On the following morning (June 24th), Edward II. advanced to the attack. As the English army slowly rolled onward like an ocean-tide, the Scottish ranks knelt in devotion, while the abbot of Inchaffray, bareheaded and barefooted, walked through the lines, giving the soldiers his benediction. ‘Ha!’ cried the king of England, ‘the rebels kneel—they ask for pardon.’ ‘They ask for pardon, indeed, but it is only from heaven,’ replied a renegade Scot. The charge was sounded, and the English men-at-arms hurried on with such foolish emulation, that

202. Relate the principal occurrences in this battle.



they joined battle out of breath and disordered; while, before they could come to blows, the body of cavalry by whom they were supported were overthrown among the pitfalls, or by the caltrops that had been laid for their destruction. The Scots now joined battle with the English infantry of the vanguard, and these resisted with their native valour and obstinacy. Then came onward the English archers, the pride of an English army—men who seldom levelled an arrow against a Scottish breast in vain. As these gallant bowyers were only formidable at a distance, 400 horse, armed in complete mail, galloped among them and drove them backward pell-mell upon their main body. Then the Scottish archery in their turn, sent their arrows with fatal effect among the English infantry, who were crowded together from want of room. So encumbered indeed was the English army, that the cavalry were unable to act, and the second and third divisions could not be brought up. Bruce, who now saw that their confusion was increasing, led on his reserves with so much vigour that the English army was obliged to give ground. At this critical moment a panic arose on the rapid approach of a crowd of country people who had been furnished with banners and other ensigns, to appear like an armed host. The rout now became general, but their numbers so impeded each other, that the route of their flight was covered with dead bodies. Twenty-seven of the noblest barons of England were numbered among the dead; 200 knights and 700 esquires also fell in this destructive conflict, and 30,000 of the common soldiers.

203. *Loss of Scotland, 1314–20.*—The defeat of Bannockburn was followed by the expulsion of the English from the whole of Scotland. Bruce proposed a treaty of peace, but as Edward refused to acknowledge him as king, the Scots successively devastated the northern counties of England during the next five years, taking by surprise the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, which aggravated the national disgrace. Both parties now desiring peace, a two years' truce was concluded on the 1st of January, 1320, between Edward and Bruce, the latter not insisting on the title of king.

204. *The two Spensers—Battle of Boroughbridge, 1320–22.*—The truce with the Scots was no sooner concluded than a collision arose between Edward and his barons. As he could not exist without a favourite, Gaveston was succeeded by

203. What advantages accrued to Scotland from the victory at Bannockburn? What subsequently occurred?

204. What occurred after the truce with the Scots? Why?



“Hugh de Spenser, a young man of a noble English family, of some merit, and very engaging accomplishments. His father was a person of a much more estimable character than the son; he was venerable for his years, and respected through life for his wisdom, his valour, and his integrity. But these excellent qualities were all diminished and vilified, from the moment he and his son began to share the king's favour, who even dispossessed some lords unjustly of their estates, in order to accumulate them upon his favourite. This was a pretext the king's enemies had been long seeking for; the earls of Lancaster and Hereford flew to arms; sentence was procured from parliament of perpetual exile against the two Spensers, and a forfeiture of their fortune and estates (1320). The king, however, at last rousing from his lethargy, took the field in defence of his beloved Spenser, and at the head of thirty thousand men obtained a signal victory over the earl of Lancaster, at Boroughbridge in March, 1322. Out of 214 knights arrayed against the king, one great baron, five knights, and three esquires were killed in the battle; and of the prisoners taken fourteen knights were hanged, drawn, and quartered. The earl of Lancaster was pursued from one place to another, and was at last arrested on the road to Scotland. As he had formerly shown little mercy to Gavestone, there was very little extended to him upon this occasion. He was condemned by a court-martial; and led, mounted on a lean horse, to an eminence near Pomfret, in circumstances of the greatest indignity, where he was beheaded by a Londoner (1322). A rebellion thus crushed, served only to increase the pride and rapacity of young Spenser: most of the forfeitures were seized for his use; and in his promptitude to punish the delinquents, he was found guilty of many acts of rapine and injustice.”

205. *Seventh Invasion of Scotland, 1323.*—In consequence of this new fit of courage, Edward resolved to accomplish a fresh conquest of Scotland, and his preparations were upon so great a scale, that success seemed inevitable; for, besides an immense army of English warriors, he had hired powerful reinforcements from Aquitaine, and other parts of the continent. But the Scots anticipated this invasion by bursting across the English border, under the command of Douglas and Randolph, who swept the marches of Lancashire, on the western side, while Bruce himself assailed it on the east, after which they joined their forces, wasted the vale of Fur-

204. What were the name and character of the king's new favourite? What effect had the royal kindness on the favourite and his father? What was the fate of the earl of Lancaster?



ness, and returned homeward laden with plunder. At length, Edward, having completed his preparations, advanced in August, with an army scarcely inferior to that which had fought at Bannockburn. But Bruce, who had no desire to encounter such a force, resolved to let it exhaust itself, for which purpose he laid the whole borders waste as far as the Frith of Forth. The English therefore found nothing in their march to Edinburgh but a lame bull. 'By my faith!' cried the earl of Warrenne, as he eyed this sorry spoil, 'I never saw beef so dear!' The English ships being wind-bound in the Frith, provisions could not be secured, so that the English were obliged to retreat, burning in their way the monasteries of Dryburgh and Melrose, after they had plundered the shrines and slaughtered the defenceless monks. The Scots harassed the army in its retreat as far as York, where Edward was nearly taken prisoner. The Scottish army then returned home unmolested, and laden with spoil. These losses, with the defection of the English nobles in consequence of the arrogance of the Spensers, at last made Edward desirous of peace; and a truce, which was to last for thirteen years, was ratified between the two kingdoms at Berwick on the 7th of June, 1323.

206. *Queen Isabella invades England—Fate of the Spensers, 1326.*—The Spensers at last became so odious to the queen, that she resolved to escape to France. Accordingly in 1325, when Edward and her royal brother, Charles the Fair, were on the eve of a rupture, she was allowed to visit the French court, under the pretence of promoting an agreement between them. Having thus escaped from the control of Edward and his parasite, her next aim was to detach the young prince Edward from his father. It was therefore proposed by Charles, that Guienne should be added to England, provided the prince did homage in person for the territory, upon which young Edward was sent to France without suspicion. An adjustment of differences having been completed, the queen was recalled; but when the order to that effect arrived, Isabella "refused to return till the younger Spenser was banished the kingdom. By this reply she gained two very considerable advantages; she became popular in England, where Spenser was universally disliked; and she had the pleasure of enjoying the company of a young nobleman, whose name was Mortimer, upon whom she had lately placed her affections, and

205. What was the result of the seventh invasion of Scotland?

206. Under what pretence did queen Isabella go to France? Why did she refuse to return to England? What advantages did she obtain from this refusal?



whom she indulged with all the familiarities that her criminal passion could confer. The queen's court now, therefore, became a sanctuary for all the malcontents who were banished their own country, or who chose to come over. After having affianced prince Edward to Philippa of Hainault, Isabella sailed, together with three thousand men-at-arms, from Dort harbour, and landed without opposition at Orwell in Suffolk on the 22nd of September, 1326. She no sooner appeared than there seemed a general revolt in her favour; and the unfortunate king found the spirit of disloyalty was not confined to the capital alone, but diffused over the whole kingdom. He had placed some dependence upon the garrison of Bristol, under the command of the elder Spenser; but they mutinied against their governor, and that unfortunate favourite was delivered up and condemned by the tumultuous barons to the most ignominious death. He was hanged on a gibbet, in his armour, his body was cut in pieces, and thrown to the dogs, and his head was sent to Winchester, where it was set on a pole, and exposed to the insults of the populace. The unhappy son did not long survive the father; he was taken, with some others who had followed the fortunes of the wretched king, in an obscure convent in Wales, and the merciless victors resolved to glut their revenge, in adding insult to cruelty. He was brought to Hereford. The queen had not patience to wait the formality of a trial; but ordered him immediately to be led before the insulting populace, and seemed to take a savage pleasure in feasting her eyes with his distresses. The gibbet erected for his execution was fifty feet high; his head was sent to London, where the citizens received it in brutal triumph, and fixed it on the bridge. Several other lords also shared his fate; all deserving pity, indeed, had they not themselves formerly justified the present inhumanity, by setting a cruel example (1326)."

207. *Imprisonment and Murder of Edward II., 1327.*—"In the meantime the king, who hoped to find refuge in Wales, was quickly discovered and delivered up to his adversaries, who expressed their satisfaction in the grossness of their treatment. He was conducted to the capital, amidst the insults and reproaches of the people, and confined in the Tower. A charge was soon after exhibited against him, in which no other crimes but his incapacity to govern, his indolence, his love of pleasure, and his being swayed by evil counsellors, were objected against him. His deposition was quickly voted

206. What was the fate of the elder Spenser?—and of his son?

207. Where did the king hope to find refuge? How was he treated on falling into the hands of his enemies?



by parliament; he was assigned a pension for his support; his son, Edward, a youth of fourteen, was fixed upon to succeed him, and the queen was appointed regent during the minority (1327). The deposed monarch but a short time survived his misfortunes; he was sent from prison to prison, a wretched outcast, and the sport of his inhuman keepers. He had been at first consigned to the custody of the earl of Lancaster; but this nobleman showing some marks of respect and pity, he was taken out of his hands, and delivered over to lords Berkeley, Montravers, and Gournay, who were entrusted with the charge of guarding him month about. Whatever his treatment from lord Berkeley might have been, the other two seemed resolved that he should enjoy none of the comforts of life while in their custody. They practised every kind of indignity upon him, as if their design had been to accelerate his death by the bitterness of his sufferings. Among other brutal acts, it is said that they shaved him for sport in the open fields, using water from a neighbouring ditch. He had borne his former indignities with patience, but upon this treatment all fortitude forsook him; he looked upon his merciless insulters with an air of fallen majesty, and bursting into tears, exclaimed, that the time might come when he would be more decently attended. This, however, was but a vain expectation. As his persecutors saw that his death might not arrive, even under every cruelty, till a revolution had been made in his favour, they resolved to rid themselves of their fears, by destroying him at once. Accordingly, on the night of the 20th of September, 1327, his two keepers, Gournay and Montravers, came to Berkeley Castle, where Edward was then confined, and having concerted a method of putting him to death without any external violence, they threw him on a bed, holding him down by a table which they had placed over him. They then ran a horn-pipe up his body, through which they conveyed a red hot iron; and thus burnt his bowels without disfiguring his body. By this cruel artifice they expected to have their crime concealed; but his horrid shrieks, which were heard at a distance from the castle, gave a suspicion of the murder; and the whole was soon after divulged by the confession of one of the accomplices. Misfortunes like his must ever create pity; and a punishment so disproportionate to the sufferer's guilt, must wipe away even many of those faults of which Edward II. was undoubtedly culpable." He was murdered in the forty-third year of his

207. Who was appointed Regent during the minority of his son? Relate the treatment and death of Edward II. In what year of his age and reign did he die?



age, and in the nineteenth year of his reign; and was buried in the monastery of St. Peter at Gloucester. By his queen Isabella, he had two sons, Edward and John, and two daughters, Joan and Eleanor.

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### EDWARD III.

Began to reign Jan. 25th, 1327;—died June 21st, 1377.

208. *Administration of Mortimer.*—Edward III., the elder son of Edward II., was fourteen years old when ‘his peace was proclaimed at Westminster’ in consequence, it was said, of the voluntary abdication of his father. “The parliament, by which young Edward was raised to the throne during the life of his father, appointed twelve persons as his privy council. Mortimer, the queen’s paramour, artfully excluded himself, under a pretended show of moderation; but at the same time he secretly influenced all their measures. He caused the greater part of the royal revenues to be settled on the queen dowager, and he seldom took the trouble to consult the ministers of government in any public undertaking. The king himself was so besieged by the favourite’s creatures, that no access could be procured to him, and the whole sovereign authority was shared between Mortimer and the queen.” Isabella was too much in his power not to connive at all his deeds, and therefore to acquire a large share of their obloquy. The estates of the Spencers were given to him, and he was created earl of March. An open assumption of royal authority mortified the vanity of those barons whose ambition might have been easily lulled by more decent pretexts. The unpopularity of his administration was taken advantage of by king Robert Bruce to insist on a renunciation of all authority over Scotland. The privy council, aware of his intentions, used all their efforts to avoid hostilities, and at last it was agreed that ambassadors should meet to settle the terms of a peace which might be permanent. After a show of war on both sides, a peace was concluded between the two countries by virtue of which Edward resigned all pretensions over Scotland (August, 1327). The celebrated chair and stone on

208. In what years did the reign of Edward III. begin and terminate? Who secretly influenced all the measures of government during the first years of the reign of Edward III.? Who shared the sovereign authority between them? What was the nature of their attachment? How were the differences with Scotland terminated?



which its ancient kings were crowned, was restored; Scotland was acknowledged as a kingdom, and Bruce took the title of Robert I. To perpetuate a good understanding, Edward's elder sister Jane was married to prince David heir of King Robert, both being then infants, at Berwick, in July, 1328.

209. *Fall and Execution of Mortimer, 1330.*—The treaty and alliance with Scotland were most unpopular; but Mortimer, unawed by the fate of Gavestone and the Spencers, disregarded the expression of opinion. To show that no one was too high to be struck down by him, he caused one of his colleagues in the privy council, the king's uncle, earl Edmund, to be convicted of treason and to be executed in 1330. By this foul deed endurance was so outraged that in eight months thereafter he fell a victim to his daring experiment. King Edward was now eighteen years old, and his queen had just borne him a son, the same who was afterwards so renowned by the name of the Black Prince. The young king began to feel the humiliation of being under the direction of his mother and her paramour, and resolved to shake off the disgraceful yoke. "The queen and Mortimer had for some time chosen the castle of Nottingham for the place of their residence; it was strictly guarded, the gates locked every evening, and the keys carried to the queen. It was therefore agreed between the king, and some of his barons, who secretly entered into his designs, to seize upon them in the fortress; and for that purpose, Sir William Eland, the governor, was induced to admit them by a secret subterraneous passage, which had been formerly contrived for an outlet, but was now hidden with rubbish, and known only to one or two. It was by this, therefore, the noblemen in the king's interests entered the castle in the night; and Mortimer, without having it in his power to make any resistance, was seized in an apartment adjoining that of the queen's. It was in vain that she endeavoured to protect him; in vain she entreated them to spare her 'gentle Mortimer;' the barons, deaf to her entreaties, denied her that pity which he had so often refused to others. Her paramour was condemned by the parliament, which was then sitting, without being permitted to make his defence, or even examining a witness against him. He was hanged on the 29th of November, 1330, on a gibbet at a place called Elms,\* about two miles from London, where his body

209. What were the direct causes of Mortimer's fall? What means did Edward adopt to secure the persons of his mother and her paramour? What was the fate of Mortimer?

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\* This place of execution was afterwards called Tyburn, and was situated near the marble arch at the north-east entrance to Hyde-park.



was left hanging for two days after. The queen dowager, who was certainly the most culpable, was shielded by the dignity of her station; she was only discarded from all share of power, and confined for life in the castle of Rising, with a pension of three thousand pounds a year. From this confinement she was never after set free; and though the king annually paid her a visit of decent ceremony, yet she found herself abandoned to universal contempt and detestation; and continued, for above twenty-seven years after, dying in 1359, a miserable monument of blasted ambition and criminal profligacy."

210. *Irruption into Scotland—the French Succession.*—"In order still more to secure the people's affections, Edward made a successful irruption into Scotland, in which, in one battle, fought at Halidon-hill near Berwick in July, 1334, a very great number of the Scots were slain. After this victory, Edward placed Edward Baliol on the throne of Scotland, of which he had some time before obtained possession, but was soon expelled. The Scots detested the Baliols for their servility to the kings of England, and for displaying none of that fortitude of mind and spirit of independence, which were deemed characteristic of Scotchmen. Soon after Edward had recrossed the Tweed, he turned his arms against France, which was at that time particularly unfortunate. The three sons of Philip the Fair, in full parliament, accused their wives of adultery; and, in consequence of this accusation, they were condemned and imprisoned for life. Louis X. (Hutin), successor to the crown of France, caused his wife to be strangled, and her lovers to be flayed alive. After his death, as he left only a daughter, his next brother Philip (the Tall) assumed the crown in prejudice of the daughter (1316); and vindicated his title by the Salic law, which laid it down that no female should succeed to the crown. In 1322 Philip was succeeded by the third brother Charles IV., who in default of male-issue was followed in 1328 by Philip VI. of Valois, brother's son to Philip the Fair. Against this election Edward urged his pretensions, as being, by his mother Isabella, who was daughter to Philip the Fair and sister to the last three kings of France, rightful heir to the crown," maintaining that though females could not reign, their *male-issue*

209. How did the queen pass the remainder of her days?

210. Why did Edward make an irruption into Scotland? Where did he fight a successful battle with the Scots? Whom did he place on the throne of Scotland after this victory? Why did the Scots detest the Baliols? Against what nation did Edward then turn his arms? On what did he found his claim to the crown of France?



were not excluded from the succession. He also intimated his intention to enforce his claims by invasion, styled himself King of France in 1340, and next year quartered the arms of England with those of France, taking the motto *Dieu et mon droit*—God and my right. In the almost continuous warfare for the next twenty-nine years between England and France, there are only four events that need be especially described in the present work—the battles of Sluys and of Crecy, the siege of Calais, and the battle of Poitiers.

211. *Naval Battle off Sluys, 1340.*—Though the battle of Sluys was fought at sea, it could scarcely be called maritime; for little depended on the accidents of the winds or the waves, or on the skill of a commander in availing himself of them. Piles of stones on the deck formed a part of the magazines. The archers of both nations used their cross-bows as if they had been on land. They employed grappling-irons for boarding, and came to such close quarters as to exhibit a succession of single combats. The French had assembled a fleet of 400 sail to oppose Edward's invasion in 1340, and so confident were the admirals of success that they had promised to bring king Edward alive or dead to Paris. The English fleet consisted of 260 ships under the command of the king in person, being the first time an English sovereign had acted as admiral of the fleet. The skilful dispositions of Edward, on this occasion, were worthy of the success that crowned them. The French ships were so strongly fortified in the harbour of Sluys, that it would have been impossible to break their line: he therefore pretended a hasty retreat, by which the enemy were allured from their strong position; and when he had thus got them into the open sea, he so manœuvred as to gain the advantages of sun and wind. So complete was the discomfiture of the French on this occasion, that 230 of their ships were taken, while their loss in men has been variously estimated at from ten to thirty thousand. None of Philip's courtiers had courage to tell him of this calamity, and the office was at length committed to the court fool, who discharged it in his own professional manner. 'What heartless cowards these English are!' he exclaimed, when he thought he had found the opportunity. 'Why do you think so?' demanded the monarch. 'Because,' replied the motley official, 'they had not courage to leap overboard like our French and Normans at Sluys!' This naval battle, fought on the 22nd of

211. Why was the battle of Sluys more a military than a naval engagement? How was the fighting carried on? How many ships had the French and how many the English? How did the battle terminate? Who communicated the disaster to the French king?



June, 1340, was one of the last of those engagements by sea in which the ancient system prevailed, before gunpowder began to change the whole science of maritime warfare.

212. *Edward encamps at Crecy, 1346.*—During the three years' truce, 1342-5, Edward prepared for a more decisive invasion than ever; and he was so successful that in July, 1346, he landed in France with 4000 men-at-arms, 10,000 archers, and 18,000 foot, all his own subjects. He pressed forward to Rouen, intending to attack that city; but on being confronted by Philip, at the head of the whole military array of France, he marched along the banks of the Seine, and laid waste the country to the very gates of Paris. He was then surrounded by the enemy, while the bridges on the river were broken down; but he crossed the Seine by stratagem, and marched towards Flanders, driving the country militia before him. When Edward reached the Somme, he found the bridges destroyed, while Philip, at the head of 100,000 men, was close upon his rear; but having discovered a ford at Blanchetaque, he resolved at midnight on the 24th of August, 1346, to cross it, although Godamar du Fay, with a strong army, was drawn up on the opposite bank. Edward ordered his marshals to dash into the water in the name of God and St. George, upon which lords, knights, and men-at-arms, plunged into the river, in spite of the Genoese cross-bowmen in the French service, who galled them as they advanced. On the other hand, the English archers covered the fording of their leaders so successfully with showers of arrows, which they discharged among the French men-at-arms, that at length the English gained a footing upon the opposite bank, and put the enemy to flight, with a loss of 2000 men. Edward then took possession of Crotoi, a village on the sea-coast. Philip waited a day at Abbeville for reinforcements. This day was employed by Edward in refreshing his troops and in surveying the ground. He was now master of his own time and place for the fight, and he chose his position at Crecy, a small town on the road to Hesdin. This ground, he said, was part of the marriage portion of his mother, which had descended to him by inheritance, and therefore he was determined to defend it against Philip of Valois.

213. *Battle of Crecy, 26th of August, 1346.*—Edward “drew up his men on a gentle ascent, and divided them into three lines. The first was commanded by the prince of Wales, then

212. Of what troops did Edward's army consist? Where did he first march to? Where did he retreat to?

213. Who commanded the different divisions of each army?



a stripling of 15 years of age, directed by the earls of Oxford and of Warwick; the second was conducted by the earls of Northampton and of Arundel; and the third, which was kept as a body of reserve, was headed by the king in person. Philip arrived on the ground before noon, after a long march from Abbeville, and confident of his numbers, was more solicitous in bringing the enemy to an engagement than prudent in taking measures for its success. He led on his army in three bodies opposite to those of the English. The first line consisted of 15,000 Genoese cross-bowmen; the second was led by his brother; and he himself was at the head of the third. The battle began about three in the afternoon, by the French king ordering the Genoese archers to charge; but they were so fatigued with their march, that they cried out for a little rest before they should engage. The count Alençon, being informed of their petition, rode up and reviled them as cowards, commanding them to begin the onset without delay. The reluctance to begin was still more increased by a heavy shower which fell that instant, and relaxed their bow-strings; so that the discharge they made produced but very little effect. On the other hand, the English archers, who had kept their bows in cases, and were favoured by a sudden gleam of sunshine, that rather dazzled the enemy, let fly their arrows so thick, and with such good aim, that nothing was to be seen among the Genoese but hurry, terror, and dismay. The young prince of Wales had presence of mind to take advantage of their confusion, and to lead on his line to the charge. The French cavalry, however, commanded by the count Alençon, wheeling round, sustained the combat, and began to hem the English in. The earls of Arundel and Northampton now came to assist the prince, who appeared foremost in the very shock, and wherever he appeared, turned the fortune of the day. The thickest of the battle was now gathered round him, and the valour of the boy filled even veterans with astonishment; but their surprise at his courage could not give way to their fears for his safety. Being apprehensive that some mischance might happen to him in the end, an officer was dispatched to the king, desiring that succours might be sent to the prince's relief. Edward, who had all this time with great tranquillity viewed the engagement from a wind-mill, demanded, with seeming deliberation, if his son were dead, but being answered that he still lived, and was giving astonishing instances of his valour; 'Then tell my generals (cried the king) that he shall have no assistance



from me; the honour of the day shall be his; let him show himself worthy the profession of arms, and let him be indebted to his own merit alone for victory.' This speech, being reported to the prince and his attendants, it inspired them with new courage; they made a fresh attack upon the French cavalry, and count Alençon, their bravest commander, was slain. This was the beginning of their total overthrow; the French, being now without a competent leader, were thrown into confusion; the whole army took to flight, and were put to the sword by the pursuers without mercy, till night stopped the carnage. Never was a victory more seasonable, or less bloody to the conquerors than this; only three knights and an inconsiderable number of soldiers are said to have fallen of the English army." On the contrary, the enemy, whose army amounted to 120,000 men, lost in killed, the kings of Majorca and of Bohemia, 11 princes, 80 bannerets, 1200 knights, 1500 gentlemen, 4000 men-at-arms, and 30,000 common soldiers. John of Luxembourg, who disdained quarter, was slain by the prince of Wales, who thence assumed the motto of *Ich dien*—I serve. As soon as the battle was ended, Edward caught the prince of Wales in his arms, and exclaimed with paternal extacy—"Sweet son, you have this day shown yourself worthy of your spurs, and the crown for which you have so nobly fought: God grant you good perseverance!" The prince, as modest and gentle as he was brave, knelt down with a blushing countenance, and begged his father's blessing.

214. *Siege of Calais, 1346-7.*—In three days after the glorious battle of Crecy, the unwearied victor turned his arms to the siege of Calais; "for Edward, as moderate in conquest as prudent in his methods to obtain it, resolved to secure an easy entrance into France for the future. With this view, he laid siege to Calais, that was then defended by John de Vienne, an experienced commander, and supplied with everything necessary for defence. But it was in vain that the governor made a noble resistance, and that he excluded 1700 useless mouths from the city, which Edward generously permitted to pass through his army." In 1347, the king of France made desperate efforts to relieve Calais, and advanced against the English with 150,000 men; but he found the town so closely invested that he could throw in no succour, while the besiegers were so strongly entrenched that he dared not attack

213. What was the extent of the French loss in killed and wounded? When was the great battle of Crecy fought?

214. When did Edward commence the siege of Calais? Why did he covet it?



their lines. After remaining, therefore, in the neighbourhood for a few days, Philip withdrew his army without striking a blow. The citizens were now reduced to despair. They had resisted in spite of famine, until they had eaten not only all their horses, but even their dogs, and the vermin of their cellars; but when they saw that relief was hopeless, they called a parley, on the day after the retreat of the French army. Edward, at first, would consent to no terms, and required an unconditional surrender, but this the spirited citizens refused; he then moderated his demands so far as to consent to spare the inhabitants, on condition that six of their number should be delivered to him bareheaded, with ropes about their necks, for execution. In this ungenerous fashion he determined to take revenge upon the citizens for their obstinate resistance during the siege, which had now lasted nearly a year. The governor, John de Vienne, caused the bell to be rung for the town's-people to assemble; and, weeping bitterly, he laid before them these hard conditions. Scarcely, however, had he ended, when six of the chief citizens cheerfully offered themselves as victims for the deliverance of the rest. They bared their heads, and put ropes upon their necks, in which condition they were delivered to Sir Walter Manny, who led them towards Edward's tent. The astonished English army ran from all quarters to gaze upon the captives, as they passed; and the barons, the knights, and squires, who stood near Edward, could not refrain from tears. As for the king, he only eyed his prisoners grimly, and ordered their instant execution. The English nobles murmured, and the brave Sir Walter Manny entreated his sovereign to bethink himself of the disgrace that would stain him for such a cruel deed; but he pleaded in vain. A more powerful intercessor was fortunately at hand, in the person of queen Philippa, the victor of Nevil's Cross, who had arrived at Calais, bringing powerful reinforcements to her husband. She fell on her knees before him, and exclaimed with tears—'Ah, gentle sir, since I have crossed the sea with great danger to visit you, I have never asked you one favour; but now, I humbly crave a boon for the sake of the Son of the Blessed Mary, and for your own love to me. Be merciful to these six men.' Edward was unable to refuse such a pleader, and he gruffly answered—'Dame, I wish you had been anywhere else than here. Take them, and do with them what you please.' The gentle-hearted queen conducted the six citizens to her apartment.

214. How long did it hold out? In what manner did he resolve to punish the obstinacy of the townsmen? Did the queen interfere with that resolution?



clothed them, and regaled them with a plentiful dinner, after which she gave them six nobles each, and caused them to be escorted to a place of safety. Edward, on the surrender of Calais, turned out all the inhabitants, and repeopled the town with English; after which he embarked for England, where he landed on the 12th of October, 1347.

215. *The Battle of Poitiers, 1356.*—The first fruit of the reduction of Calais was a truce which lasted till 1355, five years after Philip of Valois was succeeded by his son John. Edward made offers of peace to the latter monarch, proposing to renounce his claims to the crown of France and to content himself with the cession of Guienne, Aquitaine, and Calais, in absolute sovereignty. But John being desirous to altogether get rid of so powerful a neighbour, declined his overtures. Whereupon the prince of Wales was sent to invade France, with a considerable body of troops, which sailed from Plymouth on the 10th of September, 1355; and being joined on his arrival at Bourdeaux by reinforcements that swelled his army to 60,000 men, he swept through Languedoc without opposition. After a six weeks' flying campaign, he returned to Guienne, to winter quarters, laden with booty and prisoners. In the next year (1356) the prince again took the field; but this time it was with an army of not more than 12,000 men, of whom only 4000 were English. At the head of this small force, he penetrated into the heart of France, intending to unite his forces with those of his brother John of Gaunt, who was employed in Normandy upon a similar expedition; but the French had broken down all the bridges upon the Loire, while king John was advancing against him with 3000 knights and 6000 soldiers, mostly cavalry. The prince therefore resolved to fall back upon his father's continental dominions; but having incautiously wasted several days in besieging the castle of Remorentin, the French had time to advance, so that the English were overtaken in the neighbourhood of Poitiers. A battle being now inevitable, the prince of Wales selected his position with great judgment, upon a small plain surrounded by vineyards and enclosures, so that the French could only attack him in front, and by a narrow lane that would admit only four horsemen abreast. Behind the hedges of this lane, he planted strong bodies of archers, to gall the enemy as they advanced. He also placed over-night an ambush of 300 men-at-arms and as many archers, to fall upon the French flank during the engagement.

215. What did the reduction of Calais lead to? Why was it broken? What followed? What besides? Relate the particular events of the battle of Poitiers.



The battle commenced by king John ordering a strong detachment to march through the lane, and close with the English; but no sooner had this force entered than the archers, who were protected by the hedges, showered their arrows with such effect among the French cavalry, that their horses plunged back upon their own army, spreading confusion wherever they came. At this critical moment, the prince of Wales seeing that the opportunity was his own, marched forward to attack the king's division, already dispirited by the flight of their companions; and a most furious encounter now took place. But nothing could resist the terrible charge of the English men-at-arms, headed by their prince, and backed by the archers, who emptied their quivers with such rapidity, that the French fell in multitudes wherever they advanced. John fought on this day with a valour that deserved a better fate, only surrendering when further resistance was useless. As for his splendid army, it was now a confused crowd scattered far and wide over the country. In this battle, which was fought on the 19th of September 1356, the flower of the French chivalry had fallen, including in all about 6000 men, while the prisoners doubled the number of the whole English army. As it was thought dangerous to retain them, they were ransomed on the spot, and thus the English were suddenly enriched by the battle of Poitiers. After spending the winter at Bordeaux, the Black Prince returned to England with his prisoner king John, in May, 1357, and made a solemn entrance into London, where the citizens received him in the most enthusiastic manner.

216. *Scots Affairs, 1346-77.*—"While Edward was occupied in his continental wars, the Scots, who never ceased to embrace a favourable opportunity of rapine and revenge, invaded the frontiers with a numerous army headed by David Bruce, their king. This unexpected invasion, at such a juncture, alarmed the English, but was not capable of intimidating them. Lionel, Edward's third son, who was guardian of England during his father's absence, was yet too young to take upon him the command of an army; but the victories on the Continent seemed to inspire even women with valour. Philippa, Edward's queen, took upon her the conduct of the field, and prepared to repulse the enemy in person: accordingly, having made Lord Percy general under her, she met the Scots at a place called Nevil's Cross, near Durham, and offered them battle. The Scots king was no less impatient to engage; he imagined that he might obtain an easy victory

215. When was it fought?

216. What occurred on the borders between Scotland and England?



against undisciplined troops, and headed by a woman. But he was miserably deceived. His army was quickly routed and driven from the field. 15,000 of his men were cut to pieces, among whom were six official nobles and thirty barons; and he himself, with five earls, fifty barons and knights, were taken prisoners, and carried in triumph to London, October, 1346." After this severe blow the Scots retreated across the borders, closely followed by the English, who now established the line of frontiers to the southern borders of Lothian. A desultory warfare was carried on for the next nine years, when king David, Edward's brother-in-law, was liberated in 1357 on condition of paying a ransom of 10,000 marks annually for ten years. During the remainder of Edward's reign, the Scots were passive, solely on account of the non-military character of their king and his predilections for England acquired during his captivity.

217. *Misery of France—Treaty of Bretegni, 1356-60.*—The truce of two years which followed the battle of Poitiers afforded little relief to France. The mercenary troops who had been in the service of both parties were now let loose on the country. About 40,000 of this soldiery, divided into companies of from twenty to forty each, commanded by adventurers of all nations, ravaged every part of the deserted kingdom, and made war on their own account without distinction on all the opulent or even industrious. The calamities of France were further aggravated by king Edward, on the refusal of the Estates-General to ratify an agreement entered into with his captive king John, renewing the war in 1359 at the head of a large army. He traversed the provinces of Artois and Picardy, unsuccessfully besieged the city of Rheims, next ravaged the country up to the walls of Paris, and then retreated towards Bretagne to recruit his forces. Soon after this, on some thousands of his men and horses being killed in a storm of thunder and lightning, he hearkened to reasonable terms of peace under the belief that he had incurred the displeasure of Heaven. By the treaty of Bretegni, concluded in October, 1360, Edward renounced all pretensions to the crown and kingdom of France, and all claims on Normandy, Touraine, Anjou, and Maine; and obtained in full sovereignty the provinces of Gascony, with various other dependencies in Aquitaine.

216. Who obtained the victory? How many of the Scots fell, and who were made prisoners? What did it lead to? When was king David liberated? How did the Scots afterwards act? Why?

217. What was the state of France after the battle of Poitiers? What was concluded by the treaty of Bretegni?



218. *The Black Prince at Bordeaux—His Death, 1360–76.*—Edward who was created prince of Gascony and Aquitaine now formed his French provinces into a principality for the Black Prince. The prince, who had shortly before wedded his beautiful cousin Jane Plantagenet, daughter of the earl of Kent, now repaired with her to his government and fixed his residence at Bordeaux, where he established a splendid court (1360). King John having died in 1364 before the ransom of himself, and those prisoners who had violated their parole, was fully paid, Edward now demanded the arrears, which John's son Charles V. evaded from time to time, employing himself in preparing to recover by force the losses of his father. This led to a renewal of war in 1369; and as England was so exhausted by the long-continued drain of men and money, the Black Prince was obliged to impose unpopular taxes to enable him to keep his army in the field. These created so much discontent that Charles V. "first fell upon Ponthieu; the citizens of Abbeville opened their gates to him; those of St. Valois, Rue, and Crotoy, imitated the example; and the whole country was, in a little time, reduced to total submission. The southern provinces were, in the same manner, invaded by his generals, with equal success; while the Black Prince, destitute of supplies from England, and wasted by a cruel and consumptive disorder, was obliged to return to his native country in 1370, leaving the affairs of the South of France in a most desperate condition, and in charge of his brother John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster. But what of all other things served to cast a gloom over the latter part of this splendid reign, was the approaching death of the Black Prince, whose constitution showed but too manifestly the symptoms of a speedy dissolution. This valiant and accomplished prince died at Westminster in June, 1376, in the forty-sixth year of his age, leaving behind him an only son and a character without a single blemish; and a degree of sorrow among the people that time could scarcely alleviate."

219. *Death of Edward III., 1377.*—"Edward III. was most sensibly affected with the loss of his son; and tried every art to allay his uneasiness. He removed himself entirely from the duties and burdens of the state, and left his king-

218. Who was created prince of Gascony and Aquitaine? Where did he hold his court? What led to the renewal of war? What followed? Who succeeded the Black Prince in his government? What caused gloom and sorrow in England? How old was he at his death? Did he leave any children?

219. What effect had the death of the Black Prince upon his father?



dom to be plundered by a set of rapacious ministers. He did not survive the consequences of this conduct; but died about a year after the prince, at his manor-house of Shene in Surry, deserted by all his courtiers, even by those who had grown rich by his bounty." It is added, that the servants disbanded, after pillaging the house, even before his death; and that the only office of piety which attended his dying moments was performed by a solitary priest, who put into the king's hands a crucifix, after kissing which he wept and expired. "He expired on the 21st of June, 1377, in the sixty-fifth year of his age and fifty-first of his reign; a prince more admired than beloved by his subjects, and more an object of their applause than their sorrow." Edward had issue by queen Philippa, who died in 1365, six sons and five daughters: four sons survived their father—Lionel, duke of Clarence; John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, Edmund, duke of York; and Thomas, duke of Gloucester.

220. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). In 1337, the prince of Wales was created duke of Cornwall, the first creation of that dignity, and earl of Chester, since which time the three titles have been borne by the same royal person.

(2). The order of the Knights of the Garter is said to have been instituted by Edward III. in 1349, to consist of twenty-four persons besides the king. A story prevails, but unsupported by any ancient authority, that the order and the motto originated in the countess of Salisbury dropping her garter at a ball, which the king took up, and presented to her with these words, "Honi soit qui maly pense"—Evil be to him who evil thinks. In Rastell's "Chronicle of Dyvers Realmys," published in 1529, it is however stated, "Some do affirme, that the order beganne fyrst by king Richard Cœur de Lion, at the siege of this citie of Acres, where in his greate necessytie there was but twenty-five knights that firmlye and surelye abode by him, where he caused all of them to wear thonges of blue leythere about their legges, and afterwards they were called knights."

(3). In 1362 a statute was enacted that barristers should plead in the courts of law in English in place of French, but the pleadings to be entered in Latin.

(4). In the reign of Edward III. flourished Chaucer, the greatest poetical genius, if not the greatest poet, with the single exception of Dante, whom Europe had probably produced since the death of Lucretius (A.D. 55), and who undoubtedly surpasses every other English poet, except Shakspeare, in the variety and fertility of his fictions. It is no wonder, that after the appearance of such a writer, the language which he had ennobled should be legally declared to be that of the kingdom.

(5). It is uncertain when parliament was divided as at present into two chambers. Hallam considers that there were two chambers in the

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219. What set of people encompassed the throne at this period? In what year of his age and reign did Edward III. die? Did he leave any children by his queen? What were the names of his surviving sons?



8th, 9th, and 19th years of Edward II. (1314, 15, 25); while it is agreed that they existed in the 1st year of Edward III. In consequence of Edward's constant want of money to carry on his wars, no less than twenty parliaments were held in his reign of fifty-one years, each of which assembled in return to writs of summons, still extant, thereby establishing that the representatives of the Commons were elected each time they assembled. In this reign the Commons established among other rights, 1. The illegality of raising money without their consent; 2. The necessity that the two houses should concur for any alteration of the law; 3. Right of the Commons to inquire into public abuses, and to impeach public councillors.

(6). For centuries it has been the practice to extol the patriotism and justice of the English parliament, that is, since the Commons became an integral part of the great council of the nation. This however is a most mischievous delusion. Down to our own time the House of Commons has been composed almost exclusively of landholders whose interests are identical with those of the peers; consequently the proceedings of both houses became a continuous struggle to increase their material and political power, and to depress that of the monarch, needing doubtless to be restrained and controlled. The benefit that dropped in the struggle to the commonalty was either to aid the one party against the other, or unintentional; just as the conversion of the manorial villains into copyholders and freemen in the reign of Henry III. arose out of Magna Charta, contrary to the intentions and in spite of the hostility of the barons—the lords of manors. In 1350, when the great Edward III. was intoxicated with victory, and ardently intent on prosecuting his wars, he tarnished his justice and his fame by conceding to the clamours of the landholders, in parliament assembled, the iniquitous Statute of Labourers, which had for its object to compel the emancipated peasants to work for nominal wages, and to impose for refusal the punishment of fixture by the legs in the *stocks*, the wooden machines still existing in many retired villages, which were then set up in every parish. That statute allowed to a mower of meadows, 5*d.* a day; a haymaker, 1*d.* a day; and a reaper of corn, in the first week of August, 2*d.*; and after, 3*d.* a day. But notwithstanding this penal statute, it is stated by Sir J. Cullum, in his 'History of Hawsted, Suffolk,' that in 1387 the wages of reapers in that parish were 4*d.* a day, when wheat was sold at 4*s.* a quarter (the average price of the period); oats, 2*s.*; a cow, 4*s.*; an ox, 13*s.* 6*d.*; a goose, 6*d.*; and a hen, 2*d.* Consequently, at that time, a reaper obtained a quarter of wheat for twelve days' labour—wages about equal to those now obtained by agricultural labourers in the United States, and fourfold those paid in this country on the average of the last fifty years.

(7). But the especially suggestive fact of this reign is that great foreign wars were almost annually carried on for fifty years without creating a national debt or materially taxing the commonalty. The explanation of this is that all the land-tenants of the crown were strictly required to render the military services and the customary payments due to the crown as particularised in Magna Charta (see § 174), which furnished a numerous military force and a large revenue.



## RICHARD II.

Began to reign June 22nd, 1377;—deposed Sept. 29th, 1399.

221. *John of Gaunt Regent.*—"Richard II., only child of the Black Prince, was but eleven years old when he came to the throne of his grandfather." He was crowned with great pomp in Westminster Abbey on the 16th of July, 1377, amidst the acclamations of the populace, readily bestowed on the beauty and innocence of the boy. As he was a minor, parliament appointed his four uncles (§ 216) and eight other peers to be a council of government, with John of Gaunt,\* duke of Lancaster, as regent. They were chosen only for a year; and the supplies granted were strictly appropriated to military defence, the English Channel being then infested by the French, who landed from their ships and burnt Plymouth, Dartmouth, Portsmouth, Rye, Hastings, and other places.

222. *Peasant Insurrection—Wat Tyler—Jack Straw, 1381.*—"As the late king had left the kingdom involved in wars, which demanded large and constant supplies, the murmurs of the people increased in proportion. The expenses of armaments to face the enemy on every side, and a want of economy in the administration, entirely exhausted the treasury; and a new tax of three groats on every *poll* or person above fifteen was granted by parliament as a supply. The indignation of the peasantry had been for some time increasing" on account of the servile condition in which they were held, most of them being liable to be sold by their masters, together with their houses, their wives and children, their horses, oxen, and implements of husbandry. Therefore when an assessment so unequitable as a poll-tax was imposed "in which the rich paid no more than the poor, their resentment kindled into a flame. It began at Brentwood in Essex, where a priest, who took the name of Jack Straw, industriously spread the report that the peasants were to be destroyed, their houses burned, and their yard-lands plundered. A blacksmith at Dartford in Kent, well known by the name of Wat Tyler, was the

221. In what years did the reign of Richard II. begin and terminate? In whom was the government vested during Richard's minority? Which of them was the chief?

222. What tax kindled the resentment of the people into a flame? Where did the insurrection begin?

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\* So called from being born at Gaunt or Ghent in Flanders.



first that incited them to arms. The tax-gatherers, coming to this man's house while he was at work, demanded payment for his daughter, which he refused, alleging she was under the age mentioned in the act. One of the brutal collectors insisted on her being a full-grown woman, and behaved in the most indecent manner. This provoked the father to such a degree, that he instantly struck him dead with a blow of his hammer. The standers-by applauded his spirit, and one and all resolved to defend his conduct. He was considered as a champion in the cause, and appointed the leader and spokesman of the people. The discontent was general, and the flame soon propagated itself into Kent, Herefordshire, Surrey, Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Lincoln; and thereafter over the rest of England."

223. *Death of Wat Tyler—the Peasants crushed.*—"The demands of the peasants are censured by all the historians of the time, as insolent and extravagant; and yet nothing can be more just than those they have delivered for them. They required that all slaves should be set free, and all common-ages should be open to the poor as well as the rich; and that a general pardon should be passed for the late outrages." When the insurrection became general these demands were conceded by the council of regency, and proclamations granting them were everywhere circulated; but not until the force under Wat Tyler, probably 100,000 in number, had reached London. These were met in Smithfield by the young king, "who invited Wat Tyler to a conference, under a pretence of hearing and redressing his grievances. Tyler ordered his companions to retire, till he should give them a signal, boldly ventured to meet the king in the midst of his retinue and accordingly began the conference. Whilst in conversation with the king, he now and then lifted up his sword in a menacing manner; which insolence so raised the indignation of William Walworth, then mayor of London, attending on the king, that without considering the danger to which he exposed his majesty, he stunned Tyler with a blow of his mace, while one of the king's knights riding up, dispatched him with his sword. The insurgents, seeing their leader fall, prepared themselves to take revenge; and their bows were now bent for execution, when Richard, though not yet quite sixteen years of age, rode up to them, and with admirable presence of mind, cried out, 'What, my people, will you then kill your

222. Where did it extend to? What were the names of the leaders?

223. How did the insurgents act? What was their number? With whom did Wat Tyler hold a conference? What were his demands? What is said of them? What was the fate of Tyler?



king? Be not concerned for the loss of your leader; I myself will now be your general; follow me into the fields, and you shall have whatever you desire.'” The awed multitude immediately desisted: they followed the king, as if mechanically, into the fields at Islington, where 1000 men-at-arms had been assembled by the Lord Mayor and Sir Robert Knowles. When they were seen by the young king, he galloped off and joined them. The surprised peasants were then set upon, and mercilessly slaughtered in the general panic which followed; and 1500 were afterwards hanged. This severity however crushed the insurrection. Thereafter, the charters of manumission and the promise of pardon every where proclaimed were revoked. It is thus that insurrections of the people, of all revolts generally the most provoked, are usually treated. Three hundred years had now elapsed since the Conquest, yet no *direct* legislative measure had been taken to abolish slavery in England. Still emancipation had *indirectly* gone on, with a rapidity in proportion to the necessities of the successive kings for peasants to fill up their armies, it being a maxim of Anglo-Norman law, that every man who bore arms for the king was a freeman. It was the operation of this principle which enabled the kings to maintain themselves against the combinations of their powerful barons. When civil wars arose, the baronial serfs thronged to the king's standards on his invitation, the inducement being their emancipation. This is one of the keys for unlocking the knowledge of English history.

224. *War in France:—Scotch Wars—Battle of Otterbourne, 1383-88.*—The military events that followed this great national disturbance were of comparative insignificance, except that they redounded to the disadvantage of England. In 1383, a considerable force was sent to Calais under the command of the bishop of Norwich; but after capturing Gravelines, Dunkirk, and many other towns of less importance, and routing an army of 30,000 French and Flemings, his army suddenly disbanded, on hearing that the king of France was marching against them, at the head of the whole military array of the land; and the unfortunate bishop, on being hemmed in on all sides by the enemy, was obliged to negotiate for a safe return to England. After this followed an invasion of Scotland, conducted by John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, in 1384, and another in the following year headed by Richard in person. But although the army on

223. What did the king grant to the insurgents? Was his promise kept? Did his royal predecessors generally observe their oaths?

224. What was the result of the war in France?



each occasion was very numerous, and attended by a powerful fleet, nothing was accomplished except the burning of a few towns and villages. At last the Scots, in 1388, determined to retort the invasion of Richard, by an inroad into England. They accordingly crossed the border with a great army: after which James, earl of Douglas, one of the bravest who ever bore that formidable title, with about 3,000 men ravaged the country as far as the city of York; after which, on his return, he halted before the gates of Newcastle in military triumph. The town was garrisoned by the brave Sir Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, and his brother Sir Ralph, who were not strong enough to meet their enemy in the field; but the English knights occasionally dashed out from their defences against the Scottish warriors, and many deeds of chivalry were performed on both sides. In one of these hostile meetings, Douglas and Hotspur encountered hand to hand, and after a long combat, the latter was discomfited, and his lance, with the silken flag at the extremity, was taken. This pennon the conqueror exclaimed, 'I will carry to Scotland.' 'By heaven!' cried Percy, 'you shall not bear it out of Northumberland.' Such was the defiance that led to the battle of Otterbourne, one of the fiercest engagements that had yet taken place between the English and the Scots. Both the Percies were taken prisoners, and many of their followers fell; but when the Scots discovered that their brave young chief had also fallen, they renewed their march in melancholy procession, and joined the main body of their countrymen (1388).

225. *Richard governs—Hereford and Norfolk banished, 1389–99.*—"Hitherto the king had acted under the control of the regency, who did all they could devise to abridge his power; however, in an extraordinary council of the nobility, assembled after Easter in 1389, he, to the astonishment of all present, desired to know his age; and being told that he was turned of two-and-twenty, he alleged, that it was time then for him to govern without help; and that there was no reason that he should be deprived of those rights which the meanest of his subjects enjoyed. He then declared it to be his intention to conduct the business of government himself. It however quickly appeared that he wanted those arts that are usually found to procure a lasting respect; he was fond of luxurious pleasures, and idle ostentation; he admitted the meanest ranks to his familiarity; and his conversation was

224. What occurred in Scotland?

225. At what age did Richard put an end to the regency? On his obtaining the full reins of government, what soon appeared?



not adapted to impress them with a reverence for his morals or abilities. The cruelty shown to his uncle the duke of Gloucester, who, upon slight suspicions, was sent to confinement in Calais and there murdered in 1397, with some other acts equally arbitrary, did not fail to increase those animosities which had already taken deep root in the kingdom. The aggrandisement of some new favourites contributed still more to make the king odious; but though he seemed resolved, by all his actions, to set his subjects against him, it was accident that gave the occasion for his overthrow. His cousin, the duke of Hereford, only son of John of Gaunt, appeared in the parliament, held at Shrewsbury in 1398, and accused the duke of Norfolk, lineal descendant of Thomas the second son of Edward I., of having spoken seditious words against his majesty in a private conversation. Norfolk denied the charge, gave Hereford the lie, and offered to prove his innocence by single combat. As proofs were wanting for legal trial, the lords readily acquiesced in that mode of determination; the time and place were appointed; and the whole nation waited with anxious suspense for the event. At length, when the combatants had met at Coventry, on the 16th of September, and had just begun their career, the king stopped the combat and ordered them both to leave the kingdom. The duke of Norfolk he banished for life, but the duke of Hereford only for ten years. Thus the one was condemned to exile without being charged with any offence, and the other without being convicted of any crime. The duke of Norfolk was overwhelmed with grief and despondence at the judgment awarded against him; he retired to Venice where, in a little time after, he died of a broken heart. Hereford's behaviour on this occasion was resigned and submissive, which so pleased the king, that he shortened the duration of his banishment four years; and he also granted him letters patent, ensuring him the enjoyment of any inheritance which should fall to him during his absence; but upon the death of his father, John of Gaunt, which happened shortly after, Richard revoked those letters, and retained the possession of the Lancaster estate to himself (1399)."

225. What act of cruelty did Richard commit? What contributed to render him odious? Whom did the duke of Hereford accuse of sedition? What proof of his innocence did the duke of Norfolk offer to give? Why did parliament acquiesce in that mode of decision? Did the king interfere in that business? Did he pronounce a just judgment? What was the fate of Norfolk? What advantage accrued to Hereford from his submissive behaviour?



226. *Richard visits Ireland—Hereford's Rebellion, 1399.*—

“Inflamed by such complicated injuries Hereford now set no bounds to his indignation, but even conceived a desire of dethroning Richard II., who had shown himself so unworthy of power. Indeed, no man could be better qualified for an enterprise of this nature than the earl of Hereford; he was cool, cautious, discerning, and resolute. He had served with distinction against the infidels of Lithuania; and had alliances and fortune sufficient to give weight to his measures. He only waited the absence of the king from England to put his schemes into execution. Accordingly in 1399, when Richard went over to quell an insurrection in Ireland, Hereford instantly embarked at Nantz, with a retinue of sixty persons in three small vessels, and landed on the 4th of July at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, where he was immediately joined by the earls of Northumberland and of Westmoreland, with such bands of followers as within a few days swelled his army to 60,000 men. Whilst these things were transacting, contrary winds prevented Richard, for three weeks together, from receiving any news of the rebellion which was begun in England; wherefore, upon landing at Milford Haven, his little army gradually began to desert him, till at last he found that he had not above 6,000 men, who followed his standard. Thus, not knowing whom to trust, or where to turn, he saw no other hopes of safety but to throw himself upon the generosity of his enemy, and to gain from pity what he could not obtain by arms. He therefore sent Hereford word, that he was ready to submit to whatever terms he thought proper to prescribe, and that he earnestly desired a conference. For this purpose, the earl appointed him to meet at a castle within about ten miles of Chester, where Richard next day received Hereford with that open air for which he had been remarkable, and kindly bade him welcome. ‘My lord, the king (returned the earl, with a cool, respectful bow), I am come sooner than you appointed, because your people say, that for one-and-twenty years you have governed with rigour and indiscretion. They are very ill-satisfied with your conduct; but, if it please God, I will help you to govern them better for the time to come.’—To this declaration the king only answered—‘Fair cousin, since it pleases you, it pleases us likewise.’ Here-

226. How did the king inflame the resentment of Hereford? What plan did Hereford devise, and what qualified him for its execution? Who joined him on his landing in Yorkshire? Where was the king at that period? What was the conduct of his army? What passed at their meeting?



ford's haughty answer was not the only mortification the unfortunate Richard was to endure: he was led triumphantly along from town to town, amidst multitudes, who scoffed at him, and extolled his rival. Thus, after repeated indignities, Richard was confined a close prisoner in the Tower; there, if possible, to undergo a still greater variety of studied insolence, and flagrant contempt."

227. *Richard II. murdered.*—The humbled and wretched Richard was easily persuaded to sign a deed by which he renounced his crown, as being unqualified to reign. "Upon this resignation, Hereford founded his principal claim; but willing to fortify his pretensions with every appearance of justice, he called a parliament, which was readily brought to approve and confirm his claims. A frivolous charge of thirty-three articles was drawn up and found valid against the king; upon which he was solemnly deposed on the 29th of September, 1399, and the earl of Hereford elected in his stead by the title of Henry IV. Richard was thereafter removed from the Tower of London to some secure place, where his friends and partizans should not be able to find him. But while he still continued alive, the usurper felt that he could not remain in safety. Indeed, some conspiracies and commotions, which followed soon after, induced Henry to wish for Richard's death; in consequence of which, eight assassins were sent down to the place of this unfortunate monarch's confinement, in the castle of Pomfret, and rushed into his apartment. The king, concluding their design was to take away his life, resolved to sell it as dearly as he could; wherefore, wresting a pole-axe from one of the murderers, he soon laid four of their number dead at his feet. But he was at length overpowered and struck dead by the blow of a pole-axe; although some assert that he was starved in prison. Thus died the unfortunate Richard, in the thirty-fourth year of his age and the twenty-third of his reign." His body was carried to London and exhibited to the people with the lower part of his face uncovered, to ascertain his identity. Henry attended his obsequies to St. Paul's. The corpse was interred at Langley, but was removed 14 years after to the

226. How did Lancaster now treat the king? Where was the king now confined? How was he treated?

227. On what did Lancaster found his claim to the crown? What resulted from the dethronement of Richard and the usurpation of Lancaster? What did parliament determine with respect to Richard? Why did Lancaster wish his death? Where was Richard confined? Relate the manner in which he was deprived of life. In what year of his age and reign was he murdered?



royal sepulchre at Westminster by Henry V “Though his conduct was blamable, yet the punishment he suffered was greater than his offences; and in the end his sufferings made more converts to his family and cause, than ever his most meritorious actions could have procured them. He left no posterity, either legitimate or otherwise.”

228. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the Text.*—

(1). The general discontent that existed during the reign of Richard II. was occasioned by:—1. The effects of the successful and expensive wars of Edward III.; 2. The desire for the total and immediate abolition of personal slavery; 3. The spread of Wickliffe's doctrines in opposition to those of the See of Rome; 4. The king's extravagance, luxury, favouritism, and insatiable desire of revenge against those peers who had sought to exclude him from the exercise of government.

(2). It appears from the parliament roll (No. 13, 4 R. II.), that in this reign the clergy possessed a third part of the area of England.

(3). In 1382, the pioneer religious reformer Wickliffe was condemned by a national synod upon the following among other doctrines:—1. His dissent from orthodox language respecting the presence of Christ in the sacrament of the altar; 2. His doctrine that a pope, bishop, or priest, who is in a state of mortal sin, has no authority over the faithful, and that his acts are null; 3. His assertion, that scripture prohibits ecclesiastics from having temporal possessions; 4. That where contrition is sincere, confession to a priest is useless. Two years afterwards (1384), the reformer died at his parsonage of Lutterworth in Leicestershire; but his doctrines, or rather his spirit survived him; and however his successors might vary from him in their exposition of mysterious dogmas, they owed to him the example of an open attack by a learned clergyman upon the authority of the church and the jurisdiction of the supreme pontiff. Payne, one of his disciples, carried his system into Bohemia, where it flourished in spite of persecution.

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## HENRY IV.

Began to reign Sept. 30th, 1399;—died March 20th, 1413.

229. *Usurpation and Coronation of Henry IV.*—Henry of Lancaster, eldest son of John of Gaunt, who was the fourth son of Edward III., usurped the throne on the 30th of September by the title of Henry IV., while the direct heir, the earl of March, grandson of the duke of Clarence, who was the third son of Edward III., was then ten years old. Henry was crowned at Westminster on the 13th of October, 1399, a fortnight after the deposition of Richard. In addition to the usual ceremonies, the sword which he wore when he

229. In what years did the reign of Henry IV. commence and terminate? Who ought to have succeeded Richard II.? Why? What new ceremonial was commenced at Henry's coronation?



landed at Ravenspur was borne naked by Percy earl of Northumberland, and for that service the earl received the Isle of Man, and his family the hereditary right of bearing the sword at all future coronations. In the parliament that assembled thereafter, Henry's eldest son was declared prince of Wales and heir apparent to the throne, as an indirect and sufficiently positive mode of recognising his father's just possession thereof.

230. *The Percy Revolt.*—"Henry soon found that the throne of an usurper is but a bed of thorns. Violent animosities broke out among the barons in the first session of this parliament, and though these commotions were seemingly suppressed by his moderation, that formed against him by the earl of Northumberland, who had enthroned him, was truly formidable. It was in a skirmish, at Homildon near Wooler, in 1402, between the Scotch and English, that earl Douglas, with many of the Scotch nobility, were taken prisoners by the earl of Northumberland and carried to Alnwick Castle. When Henry received the news, he sent the earl orders not to ransom his prisoners, as he intended to detain them, in order to increase his demands in making peace with Scotland. This message was highly resented by the earl of Northumberland, who, by the laws of war that prevailed in that age, had a right to the ransom of all such as he had taken in battle, and he considered the king as his debtor both for security and his crown. Accordingly, stung with this supposed injury, he resolved to overturn a throne which he had the chief hand in establishing, and to elevate Mortimer as the true heir to the crown of England. He thereon granted Douglas his liberty, on condition of aiding him with all his forces, and he admitted into the confederacy Owen Glendower, who had sometime before proclaimed himself prince of Wales and renounced allegiance to the king of England, who promised to aid him with 10,000 soldiers. When all things were prepared, Northumberland had the mortification to find himself unable to lead on the troops, being seized with a sudden illness at Berwick. But the want of his presence was well supplied by his son, Harry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, who took the command of the troops, and marched them towards Shrewsbury in order to join his forces with those of Glendower, who had now advanced with his forces into Shropshire. Upon the approach

230. By what circumstances were the first years of his reign marked? How did he incur the resentment of Northumberland? What two chieftains were to unite to dethrone Henry IV.? Whom did they intend to place on the throne? What happened to Northumberland on this occasion? Who commanded in his stead?



of these two armies, they published a manifesto, which aggravated their real grievances, and invented more. Henry IV was, at first, greatly surprised at the news of this rebellion. But fortune seemed to befriend him on this occasion; he had a small army in readiness, which he intended against the Welsh, and he instantly hurried down to Shrewsbury, that he might give the rebels battle. On the approach of the two armies, both sides seemed willing to give a colour to their cause by showing a desire of reconciliation; but when they came to open their mutual demands, the treaty was turned into abuse and recrimination. On one side was objected rebellion and ingratitude; on the other tyranny and usurpation. A battle therefore had to be fought."

231. *Battle of Shrewsbury—Death of Hotspur, 1403.*—By a skilful manœuvre, Henry had succeeded in preventing the junction of the Welsh with the army of Percy and Douglas. They therefore ought to have deferred the engagement until either Northumberland himself had arrived with the main body of the army, or Glendower could have broken through the obstacles by which he was separated from them; but Hotspur was not of a temper to pause when an enemy was before him. "The two opposing armies were pretty nearly equal, each consisting of about 12,000 men; the animosity on both sides was inflamed to the highest pitch; and no prudence nor military skill could determine on which side the victory might incline. Accordingly, a very bloody engagement ensued near Shrewsbury on the 21st of July, 1403, in which the generals on both sides exerted themselves with great bravery. Henry was seen everywhere in the thickest of the fight; while his valiant son, who was afterwards the renowned conqueror of France, fought by his side; and though wounded in the face by an arrow, still kept the field, and performed astonishing acts of valour. On the other side, the daring Hotspur supported that renown which he had acquired in so many bloody engagements, and everywhere sought out the king as a noble object of indignation. At last, however, his death, from an unknown hand, decided the victory; and the fortune of Henry once more prevailed. On that bloody day, it is said, that no less than 2300 gentlemen were slain, and about 6000 private men, of whom two-thirds were of Hotspur's army. While this furious transaction was going forward, the earl of Northumberland, who was lately recovered from his indisposition, was advancing with a body of troops to reinforce the army of malcontents, and take upon

231. What gave the victory to Henry? In what year was the battle fought?



him the command. But hearing by the way of his son's and brother's misfortune, he dismissed his troops, not daring to keep the field with so small a force, before an army superior in number, and flushed with recent victory. The earl, therefore, for a while, attempted to find safety by flight: but at last, being pressed by his pursuers, and finding himself totally without resource, he chose rather to throw himself upon the king's mercy, than lead a precarious and indigent life in exile. Upon his appearing before Henry at York, he pretended that his sole intention in arming was to mediate between the two parties; and this, though but a very weak apology, seemed to satisfy the king. Northumberland, therefore, received a pardon; Henry probably thinking that he was sufficiently punished by the loss of his army, and the death of his favourite son."

232. *Wales subdued—Glendower unconquered, 1404-15.*—Henry now directed his arms against the obnoxious Glendower, whom he had prevented from joining in the battle of Shrewsbury; and the young prince of Wales, although only seventeen years old, was appointed to head the expedition. But the Welsh chief entered into an alliance with Charles VI. king of France, in 1404, by whom he was assisted with men and money; and notwithstanding the defeat of his English friends, he was enabled to act upon the aggressive, and recover several castles from the English. Young Henry's arrival, however, changed the scene. Even already he manifested those splendid talents for war which were afterwards so conspicuous. Glendower, after suffering two defeats from his youthful rival, the one at Grosmont Castle in Monmouthshire, and the other at Mynydd pwl Melyn in Brecknockshire, was obliged to disband his few remaining forces, and become a solitary fugitive among his native mountains. But his patriot heart was still unconquered, and in consequence of the arrival of 12,000 French auxiliaries at Milford Haven, he was enabled to take the field once more as an open antagonist of England. But the French auxiliaries were soon weary of the war, in consequence of the vigorous proceedings of the king of England, so that, after a few skirmishes, they set sail from the Principality, leaving the Welsh to shift as they best could. The history of the last and bravest of the Welsh princes, after this period, was an unceasing struggle against overwhelming multitudes, in which he might revenge his

231. Did Northumberland imitate the resolution and bravery of his son? What induced the king to pardon him?

232. Recapitulate the events of the Welsh war. Why is Glendower said to have died unconquered?



own wrongs without delivering his country. But whether at the head of a gallant band, or as a lonely wanderer among his native fastnesses, he still maintained his independence, and never ceased to be the enemy of the oppressors of his countrymen. In this manner he continued his resistance to the hour of his death, which took place at the house of one of his daughters, on the 20th of September, 1415.

233. *Prince Henry and Chief Justice Gascoyne, 1412.*—“Henry now seemed to have surmounted all his troubles: and the calm which was thus produced was employed by him in endeavours to acquire popularity, which he had lost by the severities exercised during the preceding part of his reign. For that reason, he often permitted the House of Commons to assume powers which had not been usually exercised by their predecessors. In the sixth year of his reign (1407), when they voted him the supplies, they proposed thirty very important articles for the government of the king's household; and appointed treasurers of their own to see the money disbursed for the purposes intended (see § 220 (6).), requiring them to deliver in their accounts to the house. On the whole, the commons preserved their privileges and freedom more entire during his reign than any of his predecessors. But while the king thus laboured, not without success, to retrieve the reputation he had lost, his son Henry, prince of Wales, seemed equally bent on incurring the public aversion. He became notorious for all kinds of debauchery, and ever chose to be surrounded by a set of wretches, who took pride in committing the most illegal acts with the prince at their head. The king was not a little mortified at this degeneracy in his eldest son, who seemed entirely forgetful of his station, although he had already exhibited repeated proofs of his valour, conduct, and generosity. Such were the excesses into which he ran, that one of his dissolute companions having been brought to trial before Sir William Gascoyne, chief justice of the King's Bench, for some misdemeanor, the prince was so exasperated at the issue of the trial, that he struck the judge in open court. The venerable magistrate, who knew the reverence that was due to his station, behaved with a dignity that became his office, and immediately ordered the

233. What means did Henry employ to obtain popularity? Relate the measures adopted by the House of Commons respecting the supplies in the king's household. What was the conduct of the Prince of Wales? Who was then chief justice of the King's Bench? How did the Prince of Wales behave towards him? Relate the conduct of that magistrate, and the exclamation of the king when the transaction was reported to him.



prince to be committed to prison. When this transaction was reported to the king, who was an excellent judge of mankind, he could not help exclaiming in a transport: 'Happy is the king that has a magistrate endowed with courage to execute the laws upon such an offender; still more happy in having a son willing to submit to such a chastisement!' This, in fact, is one of the first great instances we read in the English history of a magistrate doing justice in opposition to power; since, upon many former occasions, we find the judges only ministers of royal caprice."

234. *Death of Henry IV.*—The troubled reign of Henry IV. had now drawn to a close. The toils and anxieties of his usurped authority had reduced his strong frame to a premature decay, and he died at Westminster on the 20th of March, 1413, in the forty-sixth year of his age and fourteenth of his reign; leaving four sons, Henry, Thomas, John, and Humphrey; and two daughters.

235\*. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). There were more noblemen executed for treason in this reign than in any preceding one.

(2). The most unhappy legislative act of Henry IV. was the statute (11 H. IV. c. 15) against Wickliffe's successors, under the name of Lollards, which condemns to be burnt all who, being convicted before the diocesan of falling into heresy, shall either refuse to abjure their impious errors, or relapse into them after previous abjuration. The first person publicly burnt under this law was William Sawtre, who had been rector of Lynn in Norfolk.

(3). In 1406, a statute was enacted "on the grievous complaints of the commons against undue elections for shires from the partiality of sheriffs," a sure evidence of the growing importance of the House of Commons, and the existence of patriots therein.

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## HENRY V.

Began to reign March 21st, 1413;—died August 31st, 1422.

235. *The King's Popularity.*—Henry V., eldest son of the usurper Henry IV., was crowned at Westminster on the 9th of April, 1413. The first steps taken by the young king dispelled all those feelings of distrust which his previous excesses had induced. He called together his former abandoned companions; acquainted them with his intended reformation;

234. What occasioned the death of Henry? In what year of his life and reign did that event happen?

235. In what years did the reign of Henry V. commence and terminate?



exhorted them to follow his example; and thus dismissed them from his presence, allowing them a competency to subsist upon till he saw them worthy of further promotion. The faithful ministers of his father, at first, began to tremble for their former justice in the administration of their duty; but he soon eased them of their fears, by taking them into his friendship and confidence. Sir William Gascoyne, who thought himself the most obnoxious, met with praise instead of reproaches, and was exhorted to persevere in the same rigorous and impartial execution of justice." Henry now devoted his whole care to public affairs and the welfare of his kingdom. His superiority to every feeling of jealousy and fear was also displayed in his magnanimous conduct towards those who were his hereditary enemies. After bestowing a royal funeral upon the remains of Richard II., at which he attended as chief mourner, he freed the earl of March from confinement, to which he had been subjected during the late reign, and restored the family of Northumberland to all those honours and estates which had been forfeited by their rebellion. These early measures dispelled the misgivings of the nation, and all parties united in applauding the virtues of their sovereign.

236. *The Lollards persecuted—Lord Cobham, 1413-18.*—"The principles of Wyckliff (or Lollardism as they were called), very similar to those of the Reformation, began to spread every day more and more, while they received a new lustre from the protection and preaching of Sir John Oldcastle, baron of Cobham, who had been one of the king's domestics, and stood high in his favour. Primate Arundel resolved to crush these opinions by the fiercest persecution. He indicted this nobleman, and, with the assistance of his suffragans, condemned him as a heretic to be burnt alive (Oct. 1413). Cobham, however, escaped from the Tower, in which he was confined, the day before his execution, privately went among his party, and stimulating their zeal, led them up to London, to take a signal revenge on his enemies. But the king, apprised of his intentions, ordered that the city gates should be shut; and coming by night with his guards into St. Giles's fields, seized such of the conspirators as appeared, and afterwards laid hold of several parties that were hastening to the appointed place. Some of these were executed, but the greater number pardoned. Cobham himself found means of escaping

235. Whom did he dismiss from his presence on his accession? Whom did he take into his friendship? How did he treat Sir William Gascoyne? What were his other acts to gain popularity?

236. What were the religious opinions of the Lollards (see § 228-3)?



for that time, but he was taken about four years after; and never did the cruelty of man invent, or crimes draw down, such torments as he was made to endure. He was hung up with a chain by the middle; and thus at a slow fire burned, or rather roasted, alive," in St. Giles's fields, London, in February, 1418.

237. *Preparations to invade France—Cambridge executed, 1415.*—As the known humanity of Henry would have been averse to religious persecutions and executions, the prelates resolved to occupy him so effectually in foreign wars, that he should have no leisure to interrupt their proceedings. In this case, nothing was more easy than to revive the old claims of England to the crown of France, which had been so strenuously asserted by Edward III., whose rights were now supposed to rest in Henry V. The king was easily instigated to the attempt of conquest, not only by the large subsidies which the clergy agreed to furnish, but by the state of France, which now lay prostrate beneath two furious factions, one headed by the duke of Burgundy, and the other by the duke of Orleans, while their unfortunate king, Charles VI., owing to mental derangement, was unfit for government. The English king, although he saw his advantage, proceeded cautiously in his measures, and, without announcing his purposes, made every preparation for war (1413). At length, when his preparations were finished, and his troops in readiness to embark, he was startled by the tidings of a conspiracy that had been formed to assassinate him, and proclaim the earl of March king. The three ringleaders of the plot were the earl of Cambridge, brother of the duke of York and grandson of Edward III., lord Scrope, and Sir Thomas Grey, who were tried, condemned, and executed.

238. *Disembarkation at Harfleur—Battle of Agincourt, 1415.*—After the suppression of Cambridge's conspiracy, Henry set sail from Southampton, on the 13th of August, 1415, with 6000 men-at-arms and 24,000 archers, and landed on the following day near Harfleur, which he immediately proceeded to invest. "But although the enemy made but a feeble resistance, yet the climate seemed to fight against the English; a contagious dysentery carrying off three parts of Henry's army. The English monarch, when it was too late, began to repent of his rash inroad into a country where dis-

236. Relate the fate of Sir John Oldcastle.

237. Who encouraged Henry to invade France? Why? Who was the earl of Cambridge?

238. What country did Henry V. invade? Why did he repent of that measure?



ease and a powerful army everywhere threatened destruction ; he therefore began to think of retiring into Calais. The French, however, resolved to intercept his retreat ; and after he had passed the small river of Tertois at Blangi, he was surprised to observe from the heights, at daybreak on the 25th of October, the whole French army drawn up in the plains of Agincourt ; and so posted, that it was impossible for him to proceed on his march without coming to an engagement. No situation could be more unfavourable than that in which he found himself. His army was wasted with disease ; the soldiers' spirits worn down with fatigue, destitute of provisions, and discouraged by their retreat." According to the highest French estimate, the English army numbered about 37,000 fighting men, and only 9000 by the English. They, however, had "to sustain the shock of 150,000 opponents, headed by expert generals, and plentifully supplied with provisions. As the enemy were so much superior, he drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods, which guarded each flank ; and he patiently expected, in that position, the attack of the enemy. The constable of France was at the head of one army ; and Henry himself, with Edward duke of York, commanded the other. For a time both armies, as if afraid to begin, kept silently gazing at each other, neither willing to break their ranks by making the onset ; which Henry perceiving, with a cheerful countenance, cried out, 'My friends, since they will not begin, it is ours to set them the example ; come on, and the Blessed Trinity be our protection.' Upon this, the whole army set forward with a shout, while the French still waited their approach with intrepidity. The English archers, who had long been famous for their great skill, first let fly a shower of arrows, three feet long, which did great execution. The French cavalry advancing to repel these, two hundred bowmen, who lay till then concealed, rising on a sudden, let fly among them, and produced such a confusion, that the archers threw by their arrows, and rushing in, fell upon them sword in hand. The French at first repulsed their assailants, but they soon after burst in upon the enemy with such impetuosity, that the French were overthrown in every part of the field ; their numbers being crowded into a very narrow space, were incapable of either flying or making any resistance ; so that they covered the ground with heaps of slain. After all appearance of opposition was over, there was heard an alarm from behind, which

238. Where did the French and the English armies meet ? Who began the engagement ? Who gained the victory, and what act of barbarity tarnished the glory of the conqueror ?



proceeded from a number of peasants, who had fallen upon the English baggage, and were putting those who guarded it to the sword. Henry now seeing the enemy on all sides of him, began to entertain apprehensions for his prisoners, the number of whom exceeded even that of his army. He thought it necessary, therefore, to issue general orders for putting them to death: but, on the discovery of the certainty of his victory, he stopped the slaughter, and was still able to save a great number. This severity tarnished the glory which his victory would otherwise have acquired; but all the heroism of that age is tinged with barbarity." In this battle 10,000 French were slain, and 14,000 made prisoners, while the English killed amounted to only 1600 men, among whom were the duke of York and the earl of Suffolk. The morning after this great victory Henry resumed his march to Calais, and determined that his fatigued and suffering soldiers should return to England, where they arrived on the 15th of November, 1415.

239. *Misery of France—Henry Regent, 1415-20.*—"France was at that time in a wretched situation; the whole kingdom appeared as one vast theatre of crimes, murders, injustice, and devastation. The duke of Orleans was assassinated by the duke of Burgundy, and the duke of Burgundy, in his turn, fell by the treachery of the dauphin. At last, by conquest and negotiation, Henry caused himself to be elected heir to the crown. The principal articles of the treaty of Troyes (1420) were, that Henry should espouse the princess Catherine, daughter to the king of France; that king Charles should enjoy the title and dignity for life, but that Henry should be declared heir to the crown, and should be entrusted with the present administration of the government; that France and England should for ever be united under one king, but should still retain their respective laws and privileges. In consequence of this treaty, while Henry was everywhere victorious, he fixed his residence at Paris; and, while Charles had but a small court, he was attended with a very magnificent one. On Whit-Sunday the two kings and their two queens, with crowns on their heads, dined together in public; Charles receiving apparent homage, but Henry commanding with absolute authority."

240. *Death of Henry V.*—"Henry, at that time, when his

238. What numbers fell on both sides? In what year was the battle of Agincourt fought?

239. Describe the situation of France. What noblemen were murdered? On what conditions was Henry V. declared heir to the crown of France?



glory had nearly reached its summit, and both crowns were just devolved upon him, was seized with a disorder, which, from the unskilfulness of the physicians of the times, soon became mortal. He expired with the same intrepidity with which he had lived, in the thirty-fourth year of his age and the tenth of his reign, at the castle of Vincennes on the 31st of August, 1422." The remains of the victorious Henry were interred at Westminster with unwonted pomp, amidst the undue and unreasonable regrets of a populace drunk with victory; but with two mourners—James I. of Scotland, who had long been his captive; and Edmund Mortimer, earl of March, the direct heir to the crown,—the sincerity of whose sorrow it is not uncandid to doubt. Henry had issue by Catherine of France an only child, the infant prince Henry.

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### HENRY VI.

Began to reign Sept. 1st, 1422;—deposed March the 5th, 1461.

241. *Glo'ster Lord Protector—Bedford Regent of France.*—When Henry VI., the only child of Henry V. by his queen Catherine of Valois, youngest daughter of Charles VI., was proclaimed heir to the crown of France at Paris and king of England at Westminster, he was not quite nine months old. His uncle the duke of Bedford, one of the most accomplished princes of the age, and equally experienced both in the cabinet and the field, was appointed in the name of the imbecile Charles VI. regent of France; and his uncle the duke of Gloucester was nominated by parliament lord protector of England, defender of the church, and first counsellor to the king, during his minority; while the duke of Exeter and the bishop of Worcester were appointed the personal guardians of the infant king. On the death of Charles VI. two months after, Henry VI. was proclaimed king of France. But the death of Charles, instead of strengthening, only weakened, the claims of the English; for those who would not support the dauphin during the life of his father, now willingly recognised him as the legitimate sovereign of France. He was

240. In what year of his life and reign did he die? Where did he die? Who attended his funeral?

241. In what years did the reign of Henry VI. commence and terminate? What was his age, and who was appointed lord protector during his minority? Who was appointed regent of France? What country was the great object of consideration? What was the state of affairs in France?



therefore proclaimed king at Poitiers, and assumed the title of Charles VII.; but the solemnity was sad and imperfect, while the character of the youth, as yet only twenty years old, was ill qualified for a national hero and deliverer. His chiefs and councillors also were eminent neither for virtue nor talent; his resources were scanty; and against him was opposed the whole power of England and Burgundy, headed by the duke of Bedford, a leader little inferior to Henry himself. Besides this, his capital and two-thirds of his kingdom were in possession of the English, while his only foreign allies were the Scots. The measures of the duke of Bedford still further strengthened the ascendancy of England. He fixed the powerful duke of Bretagne in his interests, and drew closer the bond of alliance with the duke of Burgundy by marrying his youngest sister. He then took the field, and after a number of skirmishes Bedford defeated his opponents at Verneuil and made prisoner their general, the duke of Alençon, on the 6th of November, 1423.

242. *Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans*, 1429.—After the disaster at Verneuil the fate of France and its native sovereign seemed to be reduced to the lowest point; but here, as frequently happens in common life, the period of reaction commenced. The conquerors, when there were none to oppose them, quarrelled among themselves, and negatived their successes by a series of irretrievable blunders. The members of the English council were at variance with each other, and contended, when they should have been unanimous in sending supplies to the duke of Bedford; so that this brave leader was never able to follow up his victories, from want of men and money. On account of these difficulties, the duke of Bedford could make no progress, and the war languished for nearly five years. But while these circumstances could only partially aid, without accomplishing, the deliverance of France, that great object was ensured by a stupendous miracle in the history of nations—by the appearance and supernatural career of Joan of Arc, the celebrated maid of Orleans. Joan was born “in the village of Domreni, near Vaucoleurs, on the borders of Lorraine, and was now (1429) about twenty-seven years of age. She had been a servant at a small inn at Neufchâteau; and in that humble station had submitted to those hardy employments which fit the body for the fatigues of war. She was of an irreproachable life, and had hitherto testified none of those enterprising qualities which displayed themselves soon after. Her mind, however, brooding with

242. Relate the early part of the history of Joan of Arc.



melancholy steadfastness upon the miserable situation of her country, began to feel several impulses which she was willing to mistake for the inspirations of Heaven. Convinced of the reality of her own admonitions, she had recourse to one Baudricourt, governor of Vaucouleurs, and informed him of her destination by Heaven to free her native country from its fierce invaders. Baudricourt treated her at first with some neglect; but her importunities at length prevailed; and willing to make a trial of her pretensions, he gave her some attendants, who conducted her to the French court, which at that time resided at Chinon. The French court probably sensible of the weakness of her pretensions, were willing to make use of every artifice to support their declining fortunes. It was therefore given out that Joan was actually inspired; that she was able to discover the king among the number of his courtiers, although he had laid aside all the distinctions of his authority; that she had told him some secrets, which were only known to himself; and that she had demanded and minutely described a sword in the church of St. Catherine de Firebois, which she had never seen. In this manner the minds of the vulgar being prepared for her appearance, she was armed cap-à-pie, mounted on a charger, and shown in that martial dress to the people. She was then brought before the doctors of the university; and they, tinctured with the credulity of the times, or willing to second the imposture, declared that she had actually received her commission from above."

243. *Joan raises the Siege of Orleans—Joan taken and burnt alive, 1429–30.*—"When the preparations for Joan's mission were completely blazoned, the next aim of the French party was to send her against the enemy. The English were at that time besieging the city of Orleans, the last resource of Charles, and everything promised them a speedy surrender. Joan undertook to raise the siege; and to render herself still more remarkable, girded herself with the miraculous sword, of which she had before such extraordinary notices. Thus equipped, she ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out; she displayed in her hands a consecrated banner, and assured the troops of certain success. Such confidence on her side soon raised the spirits of the French army; and even the English, who pretended to despise her efforts, felt themselves secretly influenced with the terrors of

242. Whom did she first attempt to convince of her appointment to free her native country from the English? What proofs of her inspiration was she reported to give? Who declared their belief in it?

243. Of what city did Joan raise the siege?



her mission, and, relaxing in their endeavours, the siege, which had continued from the 12th of October, 1428, was raised with great precipitation on the 8th of May, 1429. From being attacked, the French now in turn became the aggressors. One victory followed another, and at length the French king was solemnly crowned at Rheims, on the 17th of July, 1430, which was what Joan had promised should come to pass. A tide of successes followed the performance of this solemnity; but Joan, having thrown herself into the city of Compeigne, with a body of troops, that was then besieged by the duke of Burgundy, she was taken prisoner on the 20th of May, 1430, in a sally which she headed against the enemy, the governor shutting the gates behind. The duke of Bedford was no sooner informed of her being taken, than he purchased her of the count Vendome, who had made her his prisoner, and ordered her to be committed to close confinement. The credulity of both nations was at that time so great, that nothing was too absurd to gain belief that coincided with their passions. As Joan, but a little before, from her successes, was regarded as a saint, she was now, upon her captivity, considered as a sorceress, forsaken by the demon who had granted her a fallacious and temporary assistance; and accordingly, being tried at Rouen, she was found guilty of heresy and witchcraft, and sentenced to be burnt alive, which was executed accordingly, with the most ignorant malignity, on the 30th of December, 1430."

244. *The English driven into Calais, 1444.*—"From this period the English affairs became totally irretrievable. The city of Paris returned once more to a sense of its duty. Thus ground was continually, though slowly, gained by the French. And in the lapse of a few years Calais alone remained of all the conquests that had been made in France; and this was but a small compensation for the blood and treasure which had been lavished in that country, and which only served to gratify ambition with transient applause."

245. *Henry weds Margaret of Anjou—Murder of Gloucester, 1422-47.*—During the course of this protracted war, the council of state at home had been rent into two factions, one

243. Who then became the aggressors? What was the result of the French victories? How did Joan fall into the hand of the enemy? From whom did the duke of Bedford purchase her? What opinion was then formed of her character? What was her fate?

244. Did the affairs of the English become prosperous after the death of Joan of Arc? What city at last remained only in the possession of the English? What lesson did this teach?



of which was headed by the duke of Gloucester, lord-protector of the kingdom, and the other by the wealthy and ambitious Beaufort, cardinal of Winchester, a natural son of John of Gaunt. These two parties were more industrious in traversing each other's measures than in prosecuting the war in France, and hence the inefficiency of those supplies, both of men and money, which were sent to the Continent. Henry VI. also, as he grew to manhood, exhibited a character so imbecile as to be scarcely removed one step from positive idiotism. It was conceived, in this case, that his lack of energy might be supplied by a talented high-spirited queen, and the honour of furnishing the state with such a mistress was eagerly contested by both parties. The cardinal, however, prevailed as usual, and the bride selected for the unfortunate Henry was the able, haughty, and unscrupulous Margaret, daughter to René, count of Anjou. Margaret was naturally devoted to the French interests, having been brought up at the court of her uncle Charles. On that account the people clamoured against a French marriage; but the influence of the cardinal was irresistible, and the union took place, at Southwich in Hampshire, in April, 1445. This was followed two years after by the arrest and murder of Humphrey, endearingly called by the people the "good duke of Gloucester," who was assassinated in 1447 by the contrivance of the queen, the cardinal and the duke of Suffolk, who had negotiated the marriage.

246. *National Discontent—Jack Cade, 1447-50.*—The people of England were indignant at the assassination of their favourite, the good duke Humphrey, and the arrogance with which the queen and her favourites ruled, after having engrossed the whole authority of the state; while the land was oppressed beneath a load of taxes that had been levied for the maintenance of wars which had terminated so unprofitably and disastrously. No condition could be more unfavourable for a usurped authority, and those who were impatient under the national disasters naturally turned to the long-forgotten claims of the elder branch of the Plantagenets. These were now concentrated in the person of the able and popular Richard, duke of York, who was the lineal descendant of

245. Who was the duke of Gloucester (§ 241)? Who acquired the ascendancy in the council of state? What use did he make of his power? What was the character of Henry? Was he fit to govern the English nation?

246. Who now claimed the crown of England in preference to Henry VI.?



Lionel, duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III., while Henry VI. only claimed the throne from John of Gaunt, who was the fourth. "The duke of York therefore stood plainly in succession before Henry VI.; and he began to think the weakness and unpopularity of the present reign a favourable moment for ambition. The ensign of Richard was a white, that of Henry a red, rose; and this gave name to the two factions, whose animosity was now about to drench the kingdom with slaughter. This was first exhibited in various insurrections; particularly that headed by John Cade, which was of the most dangerous nature. This man was a native of Ireland, who had been obliged to fly over to France for his crimes; but seeing the people, upon his return, prepared for violent measures, he assumed the name of Mortimer; and, at the head of 20,000 Kentish men, advanced towards the capital, and encamped at Blackheath. The king's council being informed of this commotion, sent a message to demand the cause of their assembling in arms; and Cade, in the name of the community, answered, that their only aim was to punish evil ministers, and procure a redress of grievances for the people;" and on being attacked at Sevenoaks in Kent, by an army of 1500 men commanded by Sir Humphrey Stafford, he defeated the royal troops and slew their commander. After this Cade was allowed to enter London with his tumultuous forces, where for several days they behaved with great forbearance. But at last the rich shops were too tempting, and they began to plunder, upon which the citizens rose against them and drove them from the city. On a royal pardon being afterwards proclaimed, Cade was abandoned by most of his followers, and was obliged to fly alone into the woods of Kent. The pardon was then disregarded by the council of state, and a reward of 1000 marks being set upon Cade's head by proclamation, he was discovered and slain in June, 1450.

.247. *Duke of York lord-protector, 1454.*—The first successes of Cade convinced even the cautious duke of York that the people were generally favourable to his claim. Accordingly he returned from Ireland in 1451, where he at the time was ably quelling the disturbances therein, and levied an army in Wales, among the adherents of the family of Mor-

246. Which of these two had the preferable right? What was the ensign of Richard?—of Henry? Relate the history of John Cade. What was his fate?

247. What circumstance favoured the ambition of the duke of York? When and how did the duke return to England? What followed?



timer, with which he marched towards London, professing that his only purpose in arming was to procure the redress of grievances, and to bring the duke of Somerset to justice as a traitor. An army was raised by queen Margaret and her minion Somerset to oppose him, and the rival forces encamped over against each other on Blackheath. On a promise being given that Somerset should be confined, the duke of York dismissed his army, and repaired frankly to the royal tent; but here he was confounded to find his enemy at large, and standing in the king's presence. York, however, unawed by this circumstance, and that of his own helplessness, impeached the duke of Somerset of high treason, who retorted with equal bitterness but greater effect, for the trepanned prince had no sooner left the tent than he was arrested and hurried off to London, to be tried for treason. But a report having started up that the young earl of March, York's eldest son, was proceeding to London at the head of an army to rescue his father, the dismayed courtiers were obliged to relinquish their prey. But before they dismissed him, they led him in solemn procession to St. Paul's, and there compelled him to swear upon the cross never to take up arms against the king (1452). York departed to his castle of Wigmore in Herefordshire, and waited the opportunity of revenge, which was not long in coming. In 1454, the king fell into such a state of mental imbecility that "it even rendered him incapable of maintaining the appearance of royalty. The lords then chose the duke of York to be lieutenant and protector of the kingdom with powers to hold and open parliaments at pleasure, and he was also appointed governor of Calais for seven years. These high offices he however was only allowed to hold for a few months, the unhappy king having recovered from his lethargic complaint, and, as if waking from a dream, perceived with surprise, that he was stripped of all authority; whereon, at the queen's instigation, he abruptly dismissed the duke of York from the protectorship and his government of Calais.

248. *War of the Roses commences—Battle of St. Albans, 1455.*—After his dismissal the duke of York retired to Wales, and began to muster his retainers. Supported by several powerful nobles and about 3000 armed followers, he marched

247. Who obliged Henry VI. to take up arms against the duke of York? Who gained the advantage? How was the duke of York treated? What happened to the king? What was then done? What besides?

248. Why was the civil war at this time called the War of the Roses (§ 246)?



towards London. But the nobles on the side of Henry had been equally alert; they assembled a force of about 2000 men, and advanced to St. Albans. The armies on both sides were small, being chiefly composed of the high-born squires or knights and nobles; but the conflict of such parties could not fail to involve the whole nation in the struggle. The battle commenced on the 23rd of May, 1455, by an attempt of the Yorkists to dislodge their rivals from the town of St. Albans. They rushed into the town, and a desperate hand-to-hand encounter took place in the streets between men of high lineage, who were too proud to yield, and whose love of combat was whetted by personal and party rancour. At length the followers of Henry were obliged to give way; his bravest supporters, the duke of Somerset, the earls of Stafford and of Northumberland, lord Clifford, and several others, were killed; and the duke of Buckingham, the earl of Dorset, and lord Sudley, were wounded. The king himself was also wounded and made prisoner. The duke of York was thereafter a second time elected lord-protector, on the repeated proposition of the commons, by the parliament which assembled in November, 1455.

249. *Battles of Blore-heath, Ludlow, and Wakefield, 1456-60.*

—"Henry was now but a prisoner, treated with the splendid forms of royalty; yet, indolent and sickly, he seemed pleased with his situation, and did not regret that power which was not to be exercised without fatigue. But Margaret once more induced him to assert his prerogative;" and in the parliament held in February, 1456, the king himself again exonerated the protector from the duties of his office. For the next three years both parties angrily watched each other, and lay in wait for specious pretexts or promising opportunities of crushing their adversaries. During this period the whole people of England seem gradually to have separated into Yorkists and Lancastrians, the one taking for their emblem a white rose, the other a red. Queen Margaret having sought in 1458 to ensnare the Yorkist leaders at Coventry, war now became inevitable. The duke, Salisbury, and Warwick, agreed to muster their forces, and unite them at Kenilworth for a combined attack upon the king's party. But in this they were anticipated by their rivals, who marched against the earl of Salisbury before the junction could be effected. The two armies met on the 23rd of September, at Blore-heath near Drayton, on the borders of Staffordshire, when

248. Who gained the battle of St. Albans? What was the result?

249. How did Henry recover his authority? What followed? Who gained the battle of Blore-heath?



lord Audley was slain and the Lancastrians defeated. Salisbury thereafter joined York at Ludlow, when one of the usual reverses of civil war ensued. On the Yorkists advancing to attack the queen's camp on the 12th of October, 1459, "Sir Andrew Trollop, who commanded a body of veterans for the duke of York, deserted with all his men to the king; and this so intimidated the whole army of the Yorkists, that they separated the next day without striking a single blow. Several other engagements followed, with various success; Margaret being at one time victorious, at another in exile: the victory gained by her army at Wakefield-green, on the last day of the year 1460, after which the duke of York and his son the earl of Rutland were taken and murdered, seemed, however, to fix her good fortune.'

250. *Battles of Mortimer's-cross and of St. Albans, 1461.*—Edward, earl of March, now duke of York, heard at Gloucester of the murder of his father and of his young brother, as well as of the butchery of his most important friends at Wakefield. He thereon advanced against queen Margaret and the murderers of his father, at the head of 23,000 men; but the earls of Pembroke and of Oxford, with a formidable force of Welsh and Irish, hung on his rear. He turned upon them, and brought them to battle at Mortimer's-cross, a little eastward of Hereford, on the 2nd of February, 1461, where he defeated and dispersed them, 3800 of them being killed in the battle and the flight. The earls of Pembroke and of Oxford escaped; but Sir Owen Tudor, the husband of the widow of Henry V., was with other Welsh chiefs beheaded next day at Hereford. Queen Margaret having marched southward at the head of the army which had been victorious at Wakefield, was confronted at St. Albans on the 17th of February, 1461, by the Yorkists under the command of the duke of Norfolk and of the earl of Warwick. A sanguinary engagement ensued, which this time was disastrous to the Yorkists. "About 2000 of their numbers perished in the battle, and the person of king Henry again fell into the hands of his own party, to be treated with apparent respect, but with real contempt."

251. *Edward IV. proclaimed—Battle of Towton, 1461.*—After the battle of Mortimer's-cross, Edward had continued his march to London, which he reached eight days after the

249. What caused the dispersion of the Yorkists at Ludlow? Who obtained the victory at Wakefield-green? Who were thereafter taken prisoners and put to death?

250. Who now put himself at the head of the Yorkists? Where was the next battle fought, and who gained the victory?



disaster of his friends at St. Albans. His bravery, his youth, and remarkable personal beauty, stirred up the whole metropolis in his favour. Perceiving his own popularity, he supposed that now was the time to lay his claim to the crown; and his friend Warwick, assembling the citizens in St. John's Fields, pronounced an harangue, setting forth the title of Edward and inveighing against the usurpation of the house of Lancaster, which he concluded by asking whether the citizens would obey the young duke of York as their sovereign lord. The universal exclamation, thereon, was, that Edward should be king; and as he had more decision than his father, he boldly assumed the dangerous crown and sceptre, on the 4th of March, under the title of Edward IV. He did not slumber upon his title, as queen Margaret was still in the field at the head of the largest army which had been raised since the commencement of the civil war. Without waiting, therefore, for the ceremony of a coronation, he sent the earl of Warwick forward with the first division of his army on the 8th of March, and followed with the rest of his forces on the 12th. The two armies met at Towton, a village near York: that of Edward numbered 48,660 men; while that of Henry amounted to 60,000, commanded by the duke of Somerset, the earl of Northumberland, lord Clifford, and Sir Andrew Trollop. On the morning of Palm-Sunday the 29th of March, 1461, a fearful struggle and butchery ensued between the two armies, equally brave, and inspired by the utmost of personal rancour, and several hours elapsed without bringing any advantage to either side. At last the duke of Norfolk arrived with a reinforcement to the Yorkists, when the other party gave way and fled. In this sanguinary engagement no quarter was given, and nearly 40,000 persons lay dead on the field, among whom were the principal nobles who adhered to the cause of Henry. The king, queen, and prince, who had been left at York, thereon fled to Scotland. After the battle, Edward, with whom mercy was not a cardinal virtue, caused the earls of Wiltshire and of Devon, and several noble gentlemen, to be beheaded; and after repressing the disturbances of the northern counties, he entered London in triumph, on the 26th of June, and had the cere-

251. By whom were the losses of the Yorkists soon after repaired? Who harangued the citizens of London in his favour? What advantage was taken of York's popularity? Where did the hostile armies meet to decide the fate of the empire? What circumstance proved advantageous to Edward? How many of the Lancastrians fell? In what year was the battle of Towton fought? How did Edward act after his victory?



mony of his coronation performed on the 29th. Henry was consequently pronounced a usurper, and his principal adherents were attainted.

252. *Battles of Hedgley-moor and Hexham—Lancastrians dispersed, 1463.*—After much exertion, queen Margaret again contrived to muster a considerable army, composed of her English adherents, and several troops of French and Scottish soldiers, with whom she broke into Northumberland about the middle of April, 1463, and was at first successful. But the energies of Edward soon triumphed over this momentary reaction. Lord Montague, brother to the earl of Warwick, was immediately sent with a part of the forces against the queen's army, a large division of which, under lord Hungerford, he attacked and routed at Hedgley-moor. He then pressed forward, and gave battle to the main army, which was collected at Hexham. Here he was again victorious, and Henry, who was present at the battle, made his escape from the carnage with great difficulty, and fled into Lancashire; while the queen escaped once more from the kingdom, with her young son Edward. Nothing could equal the misery of the fugitive Lancastrian nobles after this last defeat. They wandered in foreign countries, poverty-stricken and helpless, and one of them, the princely duke of Exeter, was seen in a town on the Continent, barefoot and bare-legged, begging his bread from door to door. At last the duke of Burgundy took compassion upon the exiles, and allowed them a pittance for their support. And the fate of their sovereign, for whom they endured so much, was scarcely more enviable. Henry was at last taken prisoner, and brought to London, after which he was imprisoned in the Tower, where he remained five years (1465–71).

253. *Edward's Marriage—His Quarrel with Warwick—His Flight, 1463–70.*—"King Edward's title was now recognised by parliament, and universally submitted to by the people (1463). He began, therefore, to give loose to his favourite passions, and a spirit of gallantry, mixed with cruelty, was seen to prevail in his court. In the very same palace, which one day exhibited a spectacle of horror, was to be seen the day following a mask or a pageant; and the king would at once gallant a mistress, and inspect an execution. In order to turn him from these pursuits, which were calculated to render him unpopular, the earl of Warwick advised him to

252. Who gained the battles of Hedgley-moor and Hexham? What followed? Where was Henry confined, and for how long?

253. After the title of Edward was recognised in parliament how did he act? Why did the earl of Warwick advise him to marry?



marry; and with his consent went over to France to negotiate for the princess Bonne of Savoy, and concluded the match. But whilst the earl was hastening the negotiation, the king himself rendered it abortive at home, by marrying in May, 1465, lady Elizabeth Woodville, widow of Sir John Grey of Grooby, with whom he had fallen in love. Having thus given Warwick real cause of offence, he was resolved to widen the breach by driving him from the council (1468). The earl of Warwick, who now allied himself with the Lancastrians, was one of the most celebrated generals of the age, formed for times of trouble, extremely artful, and incontestably brave, equally skilful in council and the field, and now inspired with a degree of hatred against his former chief that nothing could suppress." In 1469, Warwick broke out into rebellion, and defeated Edward's forces at Danesmoor near Banbury; but as he had failed in raising sufficient forces to keep the field, he retired to the west and thereafter quitted England. Next September, Warwick landed at Plymouth, and immediately proclaimed Henry VI. He was soon at the head of a considerable force, with which he marched against Edward, who was then at Nottingham. Edward at first affected to disregard Warwick's approach, but on his being joined by his brother Montague with 6000 men, who had thrown away the Yorkist white rose, and cried "Long live king Harry," he fled to Lynn and embarked for Flanders (Sept., 1470).

254. *Henry restored—Battle of Barnet, 1470-1.*—After the flight of king Edward, "the poor, passive king Henry was released from prison, to be placed once more on the 9th of October, 1470, upon a dangerous throne. A parliament was called, which confirmed Henry's title with great solemnity; and Warwick was himself received among the people under the title of king-maker. But Edward's party, though repressed, was not destroyed. Though an exile in Holland, he had many partisans at home; and after an absence of nine months, being seconded by a small body of troops, granted him by the duke of Burgundy, he made a descent at Ravenspur in Yorkshire on the 14th of March, 1471. Though, at first, he was coolly received by the English, yet his army increased upon his march, while his moderation and feigned humility still added to the number of his partisans. London,

253. With whom was the match concluded? What rendered it abortive? What was the consequence of Edward's offending the earl of Warwick? Who then mounted the throne?

254. In what country did the exiled Edward live? Where did he land on returning to Britain? Was he at first favourably received?



at that time ever ready to admit the most powerful, opened her gates to him; and the wretched Henry was once more plucked from his throne, to be sent back to his former mansion. Nothing now, therefore, remained to Warwick, but to cut short a state of anxious suspense by hazarding a battle. Edward's fortune prevailed. They met at Barnet on the 14th of April, and the Lancastrians were defeated; while Warwick himself, leading a chosen body of troops into the thickest of the slaughter, fell in the midst of his enemies, covered with wounds;" as also his brother Montague. By their death the greatness of the house of Neville was destroyed. The undaunted and unwearied Margaret landed at Weymouth with a body of troops levied in France on the very day of the battle of Barnet. "On receiving the fatal news of the death of the brave Warwick, and the total destruction of her party, she gave way to her grief, for the first time, in a torrent of tears; and yielding to her unhappy fate, took sanctuary in the abbey of Beaulieu, in Hampshire."

255. *The Battle of Tewkesbury—Ruin of the Lancastrians, 1471.*—Margaret had not been long in her sanctuary, when "she found some few friends waiting to assist her fallen fortunes. Tudor, earl of Pembroke, Courtney, earl of Devonshire, the lords Wenlock and St. John, with other men of rank, exhorted her still to hope for success, and offered to assist her to the last. She had now fought battles in almost every province in England; Tewkesbury park was the last scene that terminated her attempts. The duke of Somerset headed her army; a man who had shared her dangers, and had ever been steady in her cause. He was valiant, generous, and polite; but rash and headstrong. When Edward first attacked him in his intrenchments, he repulsed him with such vigour, that the Yorkists retired with precipitation; upon which the duke, supposing them routed, pursued, and ordered lord Wenlock to support his charge. But unfortunately this lord disobeyed his orders; and Somerset's forces were soon overpowered by numbers. In this dreadful exigence, the duke, finding that all was over, became ungovernable in his rage; and beholding Wenlock inactive, and remaining in the very place where he had first drawn up his men, giving way to his fury, with his heavy battle-axe in both

254. What city opened her gates to him? How was the wretched Henry treated? Where did the armies under Edward and Warwick meet? Who obtained the victory? What was the fate of Warwick? Where did the queen then take refuge?

255. Who again espoused Margaret's cause? What was his character? Why did the duke of Somerset kill lord Wenlock?



hands, he ran upon the coward, and with one blow dashed out his brains." In the terminating battle of Tewkesbury, fought on the 14th of May, 1471, the earl of Devonshire, Sir Edmund Hampden, and about 3000 soldiers, were killed. On the next day the duke of Somerset and the prior of St. John were beheaded. Search was made for the prince after the battle. On being found and brought into the presence of Edward, "the young prince appeared before him with undaunted majesty; and being asked, in an insulting manner, how he dared to invade England without leave, he boldly replied, 'I have entered the dominions of my father, to revenge his injuries, and redress my own.' The barbarous Edward, enraged at his intrepidity, struck him on the mouth with his gauntlet; and this served as a signal for further brutality; the dukes of Gloucester, Clarence, and others, like wild beasts, rushing on the unarmed youth at once, stabbed him to the heart with their daggers." As for the unfortunate Margaret, who had retired into a religious house before the battle commenced, she was taken from that sanctuary and confined first in the Tower, then at Windsor, and finally at Wallingford, whence she was ransomed for 50,000 crowns by her father the duke of Anjou. After having survived her friends, fortunes, and children, she died in 1482, with few other claims to our pity, except her courage and her misfortunes. The battle of Tewkesbury was the twelfth that had taken place between the rival houses of York and Lancaster; and in these engagements, or upon the scaffold, sixty princes of the royal family, and half of the nobility and gentry of England, besides 100,000 of the commonalty, had fallen. And all this bloodshed had accomplished nothing more than a change of the sceptre from Henry VI. to Edward IV.—from an amiable but imbecile sovereign, to an able but profligate and sanguinary tyrant. National evils were still unmitigated, and national abuses unredressed. Every man found himself in the same situation as formerly, except that he had the death of some dear friend or kinsman to deplore.

256. *Murder of Henry VI., 1471.*—On the morning of the 22nd of May, 1471, Edward IV. returned in triumph to

255. Who fell into the hands of Edward after the engagement? What answer did the prince give to the question of Edward? What was the fate of this intrepid youth? Where was queen Margaret imprisoned? In how many battles did she sustain the cause of her husband? When did she die? What did the people of England gain by sixteen years of civil war?



London, and on the evening of that day Henry VI. is supposed to have been murdered by Edward's brother, Richard, duke of Gloucester. The proof of the fact is however disproportioned to the atrocity of the accusation. Many temptations and provocations to destroy him had occurred in a secret imprisonment of nearly ten years. It is rather improbable that those who through so many scenes of blood had spared 'the meek usurper's hoary head,' should, at last, with so small advantage, incur the odium of destroying a prince who was as void of manly as of kingly virtues. No station can be named for which he was fitted but that of a weak and ignorant lay brother of a monastery. During his whole life, he was little removed from an idiot, an infirmity which appears to have induced superstitious feelings in his behalf. His body was buried at Chertsey in Surrey; but as the common people flocked there, as to the tomb of a martyr, it was removed to Windsor. Henry had only one child, prince Edward, who was barbarously murdered after the battle of Tewkesbury (§ 255).

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### EDWARD IV.

Began to reign March 4th, 1461;—died April 9th, 1483.

257. *Edward's Cruelty and Profligacy.*—"Edward, being now free from great enemies by the ruin of the Lancastrians at Tewkesbury in 1471, turned to the punishment of those of lesser note: so that the gibbets were hung with his adversaries, and their estates confiscated to his use. Whilst he was rendering himself terrible on the one hand, he was indulging his natural inclination for magnificence and pleasures not always commendable, which however contributed not a little to his popularity. Nature, it seems, was not unfavourable to him in personal charms; as he was universally allowed to be the most handsome man of his time. His courtiers also seemed willing to encourage those debaucheries in which they had a share; and the clergy, as they themselves practised every kind of lewdness with impunity, were ever ready to

256. When was Henry supposed to be murdered? Who by? Why is this doubtful?

257. In what years did the reign of Edward IV. commence and terminate? What cruelty and injustice did he discover on his mounting the throne? In what was he immersed? Who encouraged his immoralities? What did the clergy practise?



lend absolution to all his failings. The truth is, enormous vices had been of late so common, that adultery was held as a very slight offence. Among the number of his mistresses was the wife of one Shore, a merchant in the city, a woman of exquisite beauty and good sense, but who had not virtue enough to resist the temptations of a handsome man and a monarch."

258. *Liberality of Parliament — Benevolences — Edward's Courteousness.*—In 1473 parliament repealed all the statutes enacted after king Henry's restoration in 1470, revived the acts of king Edward for establishing the succession in the house of York, and recognised his eldest son as prince of Wales. Therefore having nothing now to fear at home, he began to prepare for invading France, to revenge himself upon Louis XI., for having assisted the house of Lancaster. The expedition was so popular that the commons voted him in 1473 a supply of 13,000 archers, to be levied proportionally out of all lands and tenements; and the peers taxed themselves the tenth part of one year's income from their lands and possessions. Parliament also made further grants in the next two years on account of the French expedition. Edward likewise solicited a general benevolence or free gift of all his subjects. To insure the success of his new scheme to raise money Edward sent in 1475 for many of the wealthiest persons in the kingdom, laid his necessities before them, and earnestly entreated their assistance. By this means he is said to have obtained a very considerable sum. Many contributed to avoid being considered parsimonious, and others, that they might not seem disaffected. Some did it out of affection to his person and family, whilst others could not resist the obliging manner in which their aid was requested. A ludicrous incident took place with regard to this benevolence, characteristic of the king and of the times. A rich widow, advanced in years, was personally applied to by Edward for her benevolence. She was so much pleased with the manner in which the request was made, and the gracefulness of Edward's person, who was considered the handsomest man of his time, that she immediately answered, 'By my troth, for thy lovely countenance, thou shalt have even twenty pounds.' The sum was so very considerable (equal in

257. Why was adultery held a very slight offence?

258. What were the proceedings of parliament at this time? Why did Edward determine on war against France? What new scheme did he try to raise money for that purpose? How did he proceed? Why was he so successful in obtaining gifts? Relate the characteristic incident of the king and the lady in carrying to him her gift.



value to about 150*l.* now), that the king thought himself bound to give the old lady a kiss, in token of his satisfaction. She was so much delighted with that unexpected mark of the royal favour and attention, that she added twenty pounds more to her former donation.

259. *Invasion of France—Louis XI. buys off the English, 1475.*—As the reconquest of France was always popular in England, Edward was soon at the head of as gallant and numerous an army as had ever yet crossed the Channel. The flower of the English nobility and knighthood attended him, to the number of 1500 persons in complete armour, each having a retinue of several armed horsemen; 15,000 archers on horseback, and a great force of infantry and artillery or great guns, which were first brought into use at the siege of Berwick in 1405, composed the body of his army; while his brother-in-law, Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, whose power and dominions were at least equal to those of the French king, was to join him on landing with all his forces. Edward passed over to Calais in June, 1475; but the duke of Burgundy, instead of being ready according to appointment, had entangled himself in a war with the Germans, from whom he received nothing but defeats; and when at last he repaired to the English camp, it was with a small train of well-beaten soldiers, rather than a powerful army. Edward, however, sent a defiance to Louis XI., commanding him either to come forth and fight for his crown, or resign it; but this most astute of monarchs, who laughed at chivalry as a freak of fools or madmen, instead of starting to arms at the message, overwhelmed the herald with soft words and kingly presents. He even prevailed upon this valiant officer to labour in bringing about a peace between the two countries. But, when Louis followed the application by privily showering gold into the pockets of the English nobles, so wonderful a change in their belligerent propensities ensued, that they now became eloquent advocates for the propriety of establishing a league of Christian amity with the moderate and gentle Louis. The French king also intrigued so effectually with Edward himself, that a truce for seven years was agreed upon at Pecquigny on the 29th of August, the terms of which were—that Louis should pay to Edward 75,000 crowns within fifteen days—that he should pay him 50,000 crowns a year during their joint lives—that the dauphin of France should marry the princess Elizabeth of England—and that Edward

259. Of what did Edward's army consist? When and where were great guns or artillery first used? By what means did the king of France avert Edward's invasion?



should evacuate France as soon as the 75,000 crowns had been paid. In addition, Louis agreed to obtain for him 50,000 crowns for the ransom of Margaret of Anjou (§ 255). Besides these disbursements, he bound the principal English lords to his service, not only by liberal gifts in money and plate, but by secret pensions, which he settled upon them to the amount of 16,000 crowns a year. Louis, whose object was to get rid of his visitors, therefore paid the crowns within the stipulated time; and Edward arrived in England, with his whole army, on the 28th of September, 1475.

260. *Clarence's Judicial Murder, 1478.*—The quarrel of Edward with his brother the duke of Clarence, son-in-law of the inconstant earl of Warwick, surnamed the king-maker, appears to have first arisen in consequence of the duke's intrigues to insure the succession for himself to the exclusion of Edward's children by his queen Elizabeth Woodville. The breach was further widened in December, 1476, by Edward preventing Clarence's marriage with the heiress of the duke of Burgundy; from which time the two brothers were avowed enemies. Clarence took every opportunity of opposing Edward, who too soon found the means of getting rid of him. The occasion is said to have been produced by a singular accident. The king while hunting in the park of Thomas Burdet, a man of ancient family in Warwickshire, one of the gentlemen of Clarence's bed-chamber, killed a white buck, which was a great favourite of the owner. Burdet, vexed at the loss, broke into a passion, and wished the horns of the deer in the belly of the person who had advised the king to that insult. For this trifling exclamation, Burdet was tried for his life and publicly executed at Tyburn. The duke of Clarence, upon the death of his friend, vented his grief in renewed reproaches against his brother, and exclaimed against the iniquity of the sentence. The king highly offended with this liberty, or using that as a pretext against him, had him arraigned before the house of peers, on several acts which amounted to high treason, and appeared in person as his accuser. In those times of confusion, every crime alleged by the prevailing party was fatal: the duke was found guilty, and sentenced to death. The commons importuned the king to give orders for his brother's execution; an act of baseness not easily surpassed. As the king appears to have had some repugnance to the public execution of a prince, Clarence was accordingly privately put to death in the Tower; and the pre-

260. What led to the quarrel between Edward and his brother Clarence? What circumstance afforded the king a pretext for accusing his brother the duke of Clarence?



valent rumour was, that on being granted a choice of the manner in which he would die, he elected to be privately drowned in a butt of malmsey-wine : a whimsical choice, and implying that he had an extraordinary passion for that liquor (1478).

261. *Death and Character of Edward IV.*—Louis of France having first postponed the marriage of the dauphin with the princess Elizabeth of England and afterwards affianced him to the daughter of the duke of Austria, Edward was so mortified that he vowed to take summary vengeance on the perfidious Louis ; but he was prevented from attempting it by a sudden illness which terminated his life on the 9th of April, 1483, in the forty-second year of his age, and in the twenty-third year of his reign, counting from the deposition of Henry VI. in 1461. The character of Edward may be expressed in a few words. As no warrior had ever been more successful in battle, so no warrior was ever more eager to doff his harness when the hour of exertion was past ; and therefore, when he returned from his inglorious expedition to France in 1475, he plunged into every species of dissipation, by which his health was gradually undermined, and that boasted beauty in which he excelled all his contemporaries was exchanged for bloatedness and obesity. His ambition was as boundless as his revenge was fierce. Both these furious passions made him cruel, faithless, merciless, and lawless. To fear and its abject train he was a stranger ; but it cannot be said with truth that he was exempt from any other species of vice ; unless we except avarice, which would have bridled him more than his imperious appetites could have brooked. Withal, it was said by Holinshead of his manners, ‘ that nothing won more the hearts of the common people, who oftentimes esteem a little courtesy more than a great benefit.’ Edward left surviving issue by his queen Elizabeth Woodville two sons and seven daughters.

262. *Notable incidents in the Reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. unnoticed in the text.*

(1). During the reigns of Henry IV. and V., the further enfranchisement of the manorial bondmen appears to have been so extensive, that when their services were no longer needed to carry on the war in France, the baronial ministers of the idiotic Henry VI. re-enacted in 1445 a Statute of Labourers (see § 220 (6)), to compel the free peasants to work at arbitrary wages. It enacted—that the wages of a chief bailiff of husbandry, by the year, should be 24s. 4d., with 5s. for

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260. Is it certainly known in what manner Clarence was deprived of life ?

261. What is said of Edward’s character generally ? What else ? In what year of his age and reign did Edward IV. die ? What issue did he leave ?



clothing, and his victuals; a chief hind, carter, or chief shepherd, 20s. a year with 4s. for clothing, and his victuals; a common servant for husbandry, 15s. a year with 3s. 4d. for clothing, and his victuals; a woman servant, 10s. a year with 4s. for clothing, and her victuals; a child, within the age of fourteen years, 6s. a year with 3s. for clothing and victuals; a master carpenter, not exceeding 4d. a day with diet, and 5½d. without; labourers, 2d. a day with diet, and 3½d. without; in harvest, a mower 4d. a day with diet, and 6d. without; a man-reaper or carter, 3d. a day with diet, and 5d. without; a woman-labourer or other labourers in harvest, 2½d. a day with diet, and 4½d. without.

(2). As the real wages of labourers depend upon the quantity of the necessaries of life which can be purchased with the money received by them, it is necessary to take as the measure of value, between one time and another, one of the principal commodities consumed by them, and as that article is *wheat*, the value of the above statute wages may be sufficiently accurately ascertained by measuring them by the average price of the quarter of wheat from time to time. Thus, as the average price of wheat from 1445 to 1461 was about 6s. 8d. the quarter, it follows that the *compulsory* wages of a mower in harvest at 4d. a day without diet was then equal to 4s. a day when the price of wheat is at 80s. the quarter.

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## EDWARD V.

Began to reign April 9th, 1483;—murdered June, 1483.

263. *Gloucester Lord Protector*—*The Princes lodged in the Tower*.—On the death of Edward IV., his elder son, prince Edward, was proclaimed king. As the young sovereign was only thirteen years old, a fierce conflict commenced between his uncle Richard, aided by the ancient nobility, on the one side, and the queen and her kindred on the other, about the management of affairs during the minority. But the Woodvilles, the Greys, and their adherents, being no longer upheld by the authority of the late king, were no match for the dark and powerful Richard of Gloucester, backed as he was by the soldiery, with whom his bravery had made him a general favourite. He therefore easily prevailed on the council of state to appoint him lord protector of the king and kingdom. He then caused the nearest relations of the queen to be arrested and imprisoned in Pomfret Castle, and thus he got the king and prince Richard into his own keeping; after which, a great national council was held at London, when he was confirmed protector of England. Then, upon a pretence of guarding the persons of the late king's

263. Who succeeded Edward IV.? In what year was he proclaimed king, and what was the length of his reign? Who was appointed protector during his minority?



sons from danger, Gloucester conveyed them both to the Tower. Having thus secured them, his next step was to spread a report of their illegitimacy; and by pretended obstacles, to put off the day appointed for young Edward's coronation, from the 4th of May until the 22nd of June, 1483.

264. *Lord Hastings Murdered, 1483.*—"Gloucester's next aim was to despatch lord Hastings, whom he knew to be warmly in the young king's interest. Having summoned him to a council in the Tower, he entered the room knitting his brows and biting his lips, and showing, by a frequent change of countenance, the signs of some inward perturbation. A silence ensued for some time; and the lords of the council looked upon each other, expecting some horrid catastrophe. Laying bare his arm, all shrivelled and decayed, he accused Jane Shore, the late king's favourite mistress, and her accomplices of having produced this deformity by their sorceries; upon which Hastings cried, 'If they have committed such a crime, they deserve punishment.' 'If!' cried the protector with a loud voice, 'dost thou answer me with ifs? I tell thee that they have conspired my death; and that thou, traitor, art an accomplice in the crime.' He then struck the table twice with his hands, and the room was instantly filled with armed men. 'I arrest thee,' continued he, turning to Hastings, 'for high treason;' and at the same time gave him in charge to the soldiers. Hastings was obliged to make a short confession to the next priest that was at hand; the protector crying out by St. Paul, that he would not dine till he had seen his head taken off. He was accordingly hurried out to the Little Green before the Tower chapel, and there beheaded on a log of wood that accidentally lay in the way," on the 13th of June, 1483.

265. *Jane Shore's ignominious Punishment.*—"Jane Shore was the next that felt his indignation. This ill-used person was an enemy too humble to excite his jealousy; yet, as he had accused her of witchcraft, of which all the world saw she was innocent, he thought proper to make her an example, for those faults of which she was really guilty. Jane Shore had been seduced by the king from her husband, who was an opulent goldsmith in Lombard-street, London. She continued to live with Edward, the most guiltless mistress in his abandoned court, 'who,' according to the virtuous chancellor

263. How did he treat the king's children?

264. Why did Gloucester wish the death of lord Hastings? What steps did he take to accomplish that murder?

265. Who next felt the indignation of the protector? Of what did he accuse her?



More, 'delighted not men so much in her beauty as in her pleasant behaviour, whose favour she never abused to any man's hurt, but often employed to many a man's relief.' It was very probable, that the people were not displeased at seeing one reduced to meanness who had for a while been raised above them, and enjoyed the smiles of a court. The charge against her was too notorious to be denied; she pleaded guilty, and was accordingly condemned, by the subservient ecclesiastics, to insult the memory of the late king, at the bidding of his brother, to walk barefoot through the city and to do penance in St. Paul's church in a white sheet with a wax taper in her hand, before thousands of spectators. She lived above forty years after this sentence, and was reduced to the most extreme indigence."

266. *Gloucester becomes King.*—The protector now began to throw off the mask. It was given out that the king and his brother were illegitimate; and that, as the children of his elder brother Clarence could not succeed on account of the attainder of their father, the duke of Gloucester ought, as next in succession, to inherit the crown of England. These insinuations were preached in a sermon at Paul's Cross, on the 22nd of June, by Dr. Ralph Shaw, a popular divine, and brother to the lord mayor of London. The public mind being thus prepared for something wonderful, the duke of Buckingham, the chief actor in Richard's late tyrannical proceedings, made an harangue to the mayor, aldermen, and chief citizens of London, in Guildhall on the 24th, where he enforced the arguments about the illegitimacy of the late king's children; and as a few caps were tossed up, with the feeble cry of 'Long live king Richard!' Buckingham pretended to take this faint acclamation as the voice of the whole people. On the following day, therefore, he repaired with a few nobles, and the obsequious corporation of London, to entreat Richard to consent to be king, which he pretended to accept with reluctance. This hypocritical farce was terminated the next day by Gloucester going in state to Westminster and causing himself to be proclaimed king of England by the title of Richard III., on the 26th of June, 1483, the eighty-eighth day after the death of Edward IV. The aspersions as to the illegitimacy of his sons are so supposititious as to have always been considered wholly improbable.

265. What penance was Jane Shore obliged to perform? How long did she live after this sentence, and in what condition?

266. What aspersions were circulated against Edward V.? Whom had the protector gained over to his interest? Who offered the protector the crown? Did he accept it?



## RICHARD III.

Began to reign June 26th, 1483;—killed in battle, Aug. 22nd, 1485.

267. *Richard crowned—Edward V. and his Brother Murdered.*—Richard III. having been declared king by parliament on the 26th of June, 1483, he was crowned, together with his consort Anne, daughter of the great earl of Warwick, at Westminster on the 6th of July, 1483. Richard began his reign by acts of favour and clemency, liberating from prison various distinguished persons and elevating others to higher dignities. Now thinking all secure, he made a journey to the north, and repeated his coronation at York, with nearly the same pomp as at London.

268. *Edward V. and prince Richard Murdered.*—During his absence a storm gathered in the metropolis. The partisans of the young princes meditated, and consulted upon the means of liberating them; but Richard had provided against such attempts by sending, so soon as he was seated upon the throne, orders to the governor of the Tower to put the two young princes to death; but this man, whose name was Brackenbury, refused to be himself made the instrument of their murder, but he acceded to another proposition equally infamous—to place the key and the custody of the Tower for one night in the hands of Sir James Tyrrell a less hypocritical assassin. “Tyrrel choosing three associates, Slater, Deighton and Forest, came in the night-time to the door of the chamber where the princes were lodged, and sending in the assassins, he bid them execute their commission, while he himself stayed without. They found the young princes in bed, and fallen into a sound sleep: after suffocating them with the bolster and pillows, they showed their naked bodies to Tyrrel, who ordered them to be buried at the stair-foot, deep in the ground, under a heap of stones.”

269. *Buckingham's Revolt and Execution, 1484.*—“But while Richard thus endeavoured to establish his power, he found it threatened in a quarter where he least expected an attack. The duke of Buckingham, who had been instru-

267. In what year did the reign of Richard III. begin? What were the first acts of his reign? At what places was he crowned? What did the partizans of the princes do?

268. Who was governor of the Tower? What answer did he give to the orders of Richard III.? By whom were the princes murdered?

269. Who took up arms against Richard?



mental in placing him on the throne, now took disgust at being refused some confiscated lands for which he solicited." He therefore concerted measures for raising Henry, earl of Richmond to the throne, as the chief of the Lancastrian party, on condition of his wedding the princess Elizabeth, the heiress of the house of York. This expedient for closing the gates of civil war having been approved by the queen dowager and the countess of Richmond, on behalf of her son, the 8th of October, 1484, was fixed as the day for a general insurrection, by which time the young earl of Richmond was expected to arrive from Brittany. The insurrection broke out on the day appointed: Richmond was proclaimed as Henry VII. at Exeter, at Newbury, at Maidstone, and other places at once, to distract the attention of Richard. At the same time, "Buckingham advanced by hasty marches with his Welsh retainers towards Gloucester, where he designed to cross the Severn. Just at that time the river was swoln to such a degree, that the country on both sides was deluged, and even the tops of some hills were covered with water. This inundation continued for ten days; during which Buckingham's army could neither pass the river, nor find subsistence on their own side; and as Richmond had not arrived, the duke's Welshmen disbanded and returned home, notwithstanding all his efforts to prolong their stay. In this helpless situation, the duke, after a short deliberation, took refuge at the house of one Banister, who had been his servant, and who had received repeated obligations from his family; but the wicked seldom find, as they seldom exert, friendship. Banister, unable to resist the temptation of a large reward that was set upon the duke's head, went and betrayed him to the sheriff of Shropshire; who, surrounding the house with armed men, seized the duke, in the habit of a peasant, and conducted him to Salisbury; where he was instantly tried, condemned, and executed according to the summary method practised in those days." In consequence of the failure of this principal member of the conspiracy, the rest fled to the Continent, or sought refuge in sanctuaries and concealments. Richmond had been very active in mustering a small army, with which he embarked for England to join his partisans; but his fleet was dispersed and driven back by a violent storm, and on returning to Brittany, it was only to hear that his partisans in England were dead or dispersed, and that the conspiracy had come to nothing.

269. What obliged the Welsh to return home? What was the fate of Buckingham? Who made preparations for asserting his claims to the crown of England?



270. *Richmond lands in Wales—Death of Richard III., 1485.*—Richard, notwithstanding this success, continued to be more and more miserable; he had lost not only the affection of the nobles, but he was soon bereaved by death of his only son, in whom he had hoped that his royal line would be perpetuated; and then followed the demise of his queen. When he recovered from these stunning blows, he began to weave his ambitious web of policy anew, by soliciting in marriage Elizabeth, his own niece, by which union he hoped to traverse the matrimonial designs of Richmond. The weak queen dowager was eager for this measure, and even the princess Elizabeth herself was well inclined towards this unnatural union. It therefore behoved Richmond to hasten his preparations before the crown should be secured beyond his reach, and his policy and ambition were equally alert at the tidings. The English exiles on the Continent were gathered to his standard, and these, with 2000 French adventurers, composed a force of 3000 men, with which he set sail from Harfleur in Normandy, and arrived at Milford Haven without opposition, on the 7th of August, 1485. Although his army was so small, Richmond did not undertake the measure in a spirit of desperate adventure. Richard was ignorant in what quarter a landing would be made; his coffers were impoverished; he knew not which of his nobles to trust, while he was aware that several were ready to betray him to his rival. As soon as he heard of the landing, “Richard, who was possessed of courage and military conduct, his only virtues, instantly resolved to meet his antagonist, and decide their mutual pretensions by a battle. Richmond, on the other hand, being reinforced by Sir Thomas Bourchier, Sir Walter Hungerford, and others, to the number of about 6000, boldly advanced with the same intention; and both armies drew near Bosworth Field in Leicestershire, where the contest that had now for more than forty years filled the kingdom with civil commotions, and deluged its plains with blood, was determined by the death of Richard,” who was slain while engaged in the hottest contest, meeting a death too honourable for his crimes, but becoming the martial virtues of his life. After his death resistance became vain: a thousand men of Richard’s army were slain in the action, which lasted two hours. The duke of Norfolk, lords Ferrers, Radcliffe, and Brackenbury, were among the slain. The killed of Rich-

270. What were Richard’s movements? Where did Richmond land, and with what number of men? What were the only virtues possessed by Richard III.? What was the fate of this monarch? What nobles were slain on both sides?



mond's army amounted to only one hundred, of whom Sir Charles Brandon, who was slain by Richard's own hand, was the only man of note. On the crown being found the same day on the battle-field, it was placed on Richmond's head with the exclamation, 'Long live king Henry!' which was repeated with military acclamation by the victorious army. "Richard's dead body, stripped naked, was tied across a horse behind one of the heralds, and carried amidst the shouts of the insulting spectators to Leicester where it was exposed to public view for some days, and then buried with very little ceremony in the church of Grey-friars."

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## HENRY VII.

Began to reign Aug. 22nd, 1485;—died April 22nd, 1509.

271. *Henry VII. weds the Princess Elizabeth.*—The reign of Henry VII. may be characterised as the restoration of the Lancastrian party to power. At the opening of his reign, he was perplexed by the various and jarring grounds on which his title to the throne rested: first, his contracted marriage with the princess Elizabeth; second, his descent from the house of Lancaster; and, third, the right of conquest. 'He however rested on the title of Lancaster in the main, using the marriage and the victory as supporters.' He was crowned at Westminster on the 30th of October, 1485; and was married to the princess Elizabeth of York on the 18th of January, 1486, by which union the royal houses of York and Lancaster were said to be united.\*

272. *General Amnesty—Imposture of Simnel.*—"Immediately after his marriage with the princess Elizabeth, Henry issued a general pardon to all such as chose to accept it; but

271. In what years did the reign of Henry VII. commence and terminate? What perplexed Henry at the commencement of his reign? How were the interests of the rival families of York and Lancaster united?

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\* Henry VII. was grandson of Owen Tudor by the widow of Henry V., and son of Edmond, earl of Richmond, by Margaret, heiress of the duke of Somerset. But his descent gave him no legal right whatever to the crown of England, for three reasons: 1. Because his ancestor John, earl of Somerset, was only the bastard son of Katherine Swinford by John of Gaunt, fourth son of Edward III.; 2. Because there were legitimate descendants of John of Gaunt then living; 3. Because the act of parliament which legitimated John of Gaunt's issue by Katherine Swinford, did not make them capable of inheriting the crown, but only gave a capacity of inheriting private estate from their ancestor.



people were become so turbulent and factious, by a long course of civil war, that no governor could rule them, nor any king please ; so that one rebellion seemed extinguished only to give rise to another." The adherents of the house of York were still numerous, and they hated Henry for the severity with which he watched all their movements. Their chief object therefore was to set up some person of the former royal line under whom the claims of their faction might be revived ; and for this purpose they pitched upon the name of the young earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence, the elder brother of Richard III. The earl himself had been a prisoner in the Tower from infancy, and was therefore inaccessible to the Yorkists ; but as it was easy to find some one to personate him, "one Richard Simon, a priest, possessing some subtlety and more rashness, trained up a youth named Lambert Simnel, the natural son of a baker at Oxford, to counterfeit the person of the earl of Warwick. But as the impostor was not calculated to bear a close inspection, it was thought proper to show him first at a distance ; and Ireland was judged the fittest theatre for him to support his assumed character. Some months after king Simnel, being joined by lord Lovel, and one or two lords more of the discontented party, resolved to pass over into England ; and accordingly landed in Lancashire, from whence he marched to York, expecting the country would rise and join him as he marched along. But in this he was deceived ; the people, averse to join a body of German and Irish troops, by whom he was supported, and kept in awe by the king's reputation, remained in tranquillity, or gave all their assistance to the royal cause. The disaffected earl of Lincoln, to whom the command of the rebel army was given, finding therefore no hopes but in speedy victory, was determined to bring the contest to a short issue. The opposite armies met at Stoke near Newark, and fought a battle on the 16th of June, 1487, which was more bloody and more obstinately disputed, than could have been expected from the inequality of their forces. But victory at length declared in favour of the king, and it proved decisive. Lord Lincoln perished in the field of battle ; lord Lovel was never more heard of, and it is supposed he shared the same fate. Simnel, with his tutor Simon, were taken prisoners ; and four thousand of the com-

272. What bad effects had the civil wars produced among the people ? What imposition was attempted to be practised on the nation ? What was the name of the impostor, and by whom was he trained ? By whom was Simnel joined ? Were their expectations fulfilled ? Where did the king's troops engage the rebel army ?



mon men fell in the battle. Simon, being a priest, could not be tried by the civil power, and was only committed to close confinement. Simnel was too contemptible to excite the king's fear or resentment; he was pardoned, and made a turnspit in the king's kitchen, whence he was afterwards advanced to the rank of falconer, in which mean employment he died."

273. *Fiscal Insurrection*, 1489.—"A fresh insurrection began in Yorkshire; the people resisting the commissioners who were appointed to levy the taxes, the earl of Northumberland attempted to enforce the king's command; but the populace being by this taught to believe that he was the adviser of their oppressions, flew to arms, attacked his house, and put him to death. The mutineers did not stop there; but, by the advice of one John Archamber, a seditious fellow of mean birth, they chose Sir John Egremont for their leader, and prepared themselves for a vigorous resistance. The king, upon hearing of this rash proceeding, immediately levied a force, which he put under the earl of Surrey; and this nobleman encountering the rebels dissipated the tumult, and took their leader, Archamber, prisoner. Archamber was shortly after executed: but Sir John Egremont fled to the court of the duchess of Burgundy, the usual retreat of all who were obnoxious to government in England."

274. *Imposture of Warbeck*, 1493-4.—"From the ill success of Simnel's imposture, one would have imagined that few would be willing to embark in another of a similar kind; however, the old duchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward IV., rather irritated than discouraged by the failure of her past enterprises, was determined to disturb that government which she could not subvert. She first procured a report to be spread, that the young duke of York, said to have been murdered in the Tower, was still living; and finding the rumour greedily received, she soon produced a young man who assumed his name and character. The person pitched upon to sustain this part was one Osbeck or Warbeck, the son of a converted Jew, who had been over in England during the reign of Edward IV., where he had this son named Peter, but

272. How did the king treat Simnel? Why was his tutor Simon not tried by the civil law?

273. What gave rise to an insurrection in Yorkshire? Who commanded the mutineers?—and by whose advice was he appointed? To whom did the king give the command of his army? What was the fate of John Archamber?—and of Sir John Egremont?

274. Whose plans next disturbed the government of the country? What report did she spread? Upon whom did she pitch to personate the duke of York?



corrupted, after the Flemish manner, into Peterkin or Perkin. The duchess of Burgundy found this youth entirely suited to her purposes; and her lessons, instructing him to personate the duke of York, were easily learned and strongly retained by a youth of very quick apprehension. The English, ever ready to revolt, gave credit to all these absurdities; while the young man's prudence, elegant conversation and deportment, served to confirm what their disaffection and credulity had begun. Among those who secretly abetted the cause of Perkin, were lord Fitzwalter, Sir Simon Mountford, Sir Thomas Thwaites, and Sir Robert Clifford. But the person of the greatest weight, and the most dangerous opposition, was Sir William Stanley, the Lord Chamberlain, and brother to the famous lord Stanley, who had contributed to place Henry on the throne. This personage, either moved by a blind credulity, or more probably by a restless ambition, entered into a regular conspiracy against the king; and a correspondence was settled between the malcontents in England and those in Flanders. While the plot was thus carrying on, Henry was not inattentive to the designs of his enemies. He spared neither labour nor expense to detect the falsehood of the pretender to his crown; and was equally assiduous in finding out who were his secret abettors. For this purpose, he dispersed his spies through all Flanders, and brought over, by large bribes, some of those whom he knew to be in the enemy's interest. Among these Sir Robert Clifford was the most remarkable, both for his consequence, and the confidence with which he was trusted. From this person Henry learnt the whole of Perkin's birth and adventures, together with the names of all those who had secretly combined to assist him. The king was pleased with the discovery; but the more trust he gave to his spies, the higher resentment did he feign against them. He was at first struck with indignation at the ingratitude of many of those about him; but concealing his resentment for a proper opportunity, he, almost at the same instant, arrested Fitzwalter, Mountford, and Thwaites, together with William Danbury, Robert Ratcliff, Thomas Cressenor, and Thomas Astwood. All these were arraigned, convicted, and condemned for high treason. Mountford, Ratcliff, and Danbury were immediately executed; the rest received a pardon (1494)."

274. What qualified Warbeck for acting the part of an impostor? Who was the person of greatest weight among the abettors of Warbeck? What plan did Henry VII. adopt to detect the falsehood of the impostor? Through whom did he learn Warbeck's true history? How did he act towards the principal traitors?



275. *Warbeck aided by the Scots, 1496.*—"Warbeck, thus finding his hopes frustrated in England, went next to try his fortune in Scotland. In that country his luck seemed greater than in England; James IV., the king of that country, receiving him with great cordiality: he was seduced to believe the story of his birth and adventures; and he carried his confidence so far, as to give him in marriage lady Catherine Gordon, daughter to the earl of Huntley, and a near kinsman of his own; a young lady eminent for virtue as well as beauty. But not content with these instances of favour, he was resolved to attempt setting him on the throne of England. It was naturally expected, that, upon Perkin's first appearance in that kingdom, all the friends of the house of York would rise in his favour. Upon this ground, therefore, the king of Scotland entered England with a numerous army, and proclaimed the young adventurer wherever he went. But Perkin's pretensions, attended by repeated disappointments, were now become stale even in the eyes of the populace; so that, contrary to expectation, none were found to second his pretensions."

276. *Warbeck lands in Cornwall—His execution, 1497-9.*—"In this manner the restless Perkin being dismissed Scotland, and meeting with a very cold reception from the Flemings, who now desired to be at peace with the English, resolved to continue his scheme of opposition, and took refuge among the wilds and fastnesses of Ireland. Impatient of an inactive life, he held a consultation with his followers, Herne, Skelton, and Astley, three broken tradesmen; and by their advice he resolved to try the affections of the Cornish men; and he no sooner made his appearance among them at Bodmin in Cornwall, than the populace, to the number of three thousand, flocked to his standard. Elated with this appearance of success, he took on him, for the first time, the title of Richard the Fourth, king of England; and, not to suffer the spirits of his adherents to languish, he led them to the gates of Exeter. Finding the inhabitants obstinate in refusing to admit him, and being unprovided with artillery to force an entrance, he broke up the siege of Exeter, and retired to Taunton (Sept., 1497). His followers by this time

275. In what country did the impostor next try his fortune? Who then filled the Scottish throne? What proofs of his favour did he give to Warbeck? Who were expected to join the standard of Warbeck? Were these hopes realised or disappointed?

276. What kind of reception did Warbeck meet with from the Flemings? In what country did he then take refuge? To whom had he next recourse? Into what town was he denied admission?



amounted to seven thousand men, and appeared ready to defend his cause; but his heart failed him upon being informed that the king was coming down to oppose him; and, instead of bringing his men into the field, he privately deserted them, and took sanctuary in the monastery of Beaulieu in the New Forest. His wretched adherents, left to the king's mercy, found him still willing to pardon; and, except a few of the ringleaders, none were treated with capital severity. At the same time some other persons were employed to treat with Perkin, and to persuade him, under promise of a pardon, to deliver himself up to justice, and to confess and explain all the circumstances of his imposture. His affairs being altogether desperate, he embraced the king's offers without hesitation and quitted the sanctuary. Henry being desirous of seeing him, he was brought to court and conducted through the streets of London in a kind of mock triumph, amidst the derision and insults of the populace, which he bore with the most dignified resignation. He was then compelled to sign a confession of his former life and conduct, which was printed and dispersed throughout the nation; but it was so defective and contradictory, that this youth's real pretensions are to this very day an object of dispute among the learned. After attempting once or twice to escape from custody, he was hanged at Tyburn on the 16th of November, 1499; and several of his adherents suffered the same ignominious death."

277. *View of Henry's policy.*—"There had been hitherto nothing in this reign but plots, treasons, insurrections, impostures, and executions; and it is probable that Henry's severity proceeded from the continual alarms in which they held him. It is certain, that no prince ever loved peace more than he; and much of the ill-will of his subjects arose from his attempts to repress their inclinations for war. The usual preface to all his treaties was, 'That when Christ came into the world peace was sung; and when he went out of the world peace was bequeathed.' Henry kept two points constantly in view; one to depress the nobility and clergy, and the other to exalt and humanise the populace. With this view, he procured the Statute of Fines, by which the nobility

276. What was then the number of his men? How did he act when he heard the king was coming to oppose him? On what condition did the king offer him a pardon? What was the consequence of his attempting to escape from confinement?

277. To what has the severity of Henry VII. been attributed? What was Henry's general policy? What two points had he always in view?



were granted a power of disposing of their estates; a law infinitely pleasing to the commons, and not disagreeable even to the nobles, since they had thus an immediate resource for supplying their taste for prodigality, and answering the demands of their creditors (1488). The intention and effect of this statute was not fully apprehended at the time; the blow however reached them in their posterity; but they were too ignorant to be affected by such distant distresses. Henry was not remiss also in abridging the Pope's power, while at the same time he professed the utmost submission to his commands and the greatest respect for the clergy. But while he thus employed his power in lowering the influence of the nobles and clergy, he was using every art to extend the privileges of the people. In fact, his greatest efforts were directed to promote trade and commerce, because this naturally introduced a spirit of liberty, and disengaged them from all dependence, except upon the laws and the king. Before this great æra, all our towns owed their original to some strong castle in the neighbourhood, where some powerful lord generally resided. These were at once fortresses for protection and prisons for all sorts of criminals. In this castle there was usually a garrison armed and provided, depending entirely on the nobleman's support and assistance. To these seats of protection, artificers, victuallers, and shopkeepers, naturally resorted, and settled on some adjacent spot, to furnish the lord and his attendants with all the necessaries they might require. The farmers also, and the husbandmen, in the neighbourhood, built their houses there, to be protected against the numerous gangs of robbers, called Robertsmen, that hid themselves in the woods by day, and infested the open country by night. Henry endeavoured to bring the towns from such a neighbourhood, by inviting the inhabitants to a more commercial situation. He attempted to teach them frugality, and a just payment of debts, by his own example; and never once omitted the rights of the merchant, in all his treaties with foreign princes."

278. *Erection of the Royal Navy.*—During the reign of Henry VII, the English navy was placed upon a more regular and respectable footing. The sagacious policy, as well as the avarice of this sovereign, encouraged commerce as the source of national power; and it was at this period that the

277. Whose power did he abridge? Whose privileges did he extend? To what did the ancient towns owe their original? What did he attempt to teach the inhabitants? Whose rights did he never omit in his treaties with foreign princes? Describe the advantages resulting from his endeavours.



principle of a royal navy may be said to have originated, in the State becoming the proprietor of ships to be employed exclusively for the use of the sovereign, instead of the naval militia that hitherto had constituted an English fleet. Henry also built ships upon a larger scale than those generally used; and as these were let out to the merchants, when not wanted for the public service, this practice lessened the expense of upholding them. The commercial spirit, too, which was now superseding the chivalrous throughout Europe, improved the construction and navigation of ships; but above all, the sudden burst of new life that animated the spirit of maritime enterprise by the discoveries of Vasco de Gama, Columbus, and Sebastian Cabot, roused the English to a similar spirit of adventure, which was manifested in this and the subsequent reigns. The project of the discovery of America was at one period fraught with awful importance to England. The illustrious Columbus, when he was obliged to hawk his magnificent scheme through the courts of Europe, and offer the boon of a new world for the loan of a few barks, took courage from the far-famed sagacity of Henry to send his brother Bartholomew to the English court, with the proposals which had so often been rejected elsewhere. But the journey of the messenger was so disastrous, that his arrival in London was too late. Columbus, during the interval, had set sail from Spain, and discovered the reality of his prophetic hopes. Cabot however succeeded in fitting out, in 1497, one ship from Bristol and three small vessels from London, with which he sailed to the north-westward as far as the coast of Labrador, and then coasted the vast territories to the north of the Gulf of Florida.

279. *Death and Character of Henry VII.*—"Henry having thus seen England, in a great measure, civilised by his endeavours, his people pay their taxes without constraint, the nobles confessing subordination, the laws alone inflicting punishment, the towns beginning to live independent of the powerful, commerce every day increasing, the spirit of faction extinguished, and foreigners either fearing England or seeking its alliance, he began to see the approaches of his end, and died in his palace of Richmond, which he had himself built, on the 22nd of April, 1509, having lived fifty-two years and reigned twenty-four." He was interred in that beautiful chapel at Westminster which bears his name, and which is

278. When did the State become the proprietor of ships? What were these ships collectively called? How were the king's ships employed when not needed by the State? What was gained by it?

279. In what year of his life and reign did he die?



a noble monument of the architectural genius of his age. "Since the times of Alfred, England had not seen such another king. He rendered his subjects powerful and happy, and wrought a greater change in the manners of the people, than it was possible to suppose could be effected in so short a time." He was pacific, though valiant, and magnificent in public works, though penurious to an unkingly excess in ordinary expenditure. His sagacity and fortitude were conspicuous, but his penetrating mind was narrow, and in his wary temper did not approach the borders of magnanimity. No generosity lent lustre to his purpose, no tenderness softened his rigid nature. In a word, he had no dispositions for which he could be loved as a man. "In the accumulation of wealth he surpassed all the kings of England who preceded him. To an insatiable desire for money, to hardness of heart, and to an inveterate hatred of the house of York, may be attributed most of the troubles and almost all the vices which disgraced his reign." He left one son, his successor; and two daughters—Margaret, married to James IV. of Scotland; and Mary, married first to Louis XII. of France, by whom she had no issue, and afterwards to Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, by whom she had one son and two daughters.

280. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). The reign of Henry VII. is the epoch of the all but total annihilation of the formidable Anglo-Norman baronage, for more than four centuries the territorial lords of two-thirds of the soil and commonalty of England. Their destruction was as necessary for law and order as that of the Egyptian Mamelukes and the Turkish Janizaries in our own time. It is uncertain what number of titled barons were individually summoned by writ in the different reigns to the great council of the nation and to parliament as provided by Magna Charta (c. 14); but it appears that about 330 titled barons became extinct and dispossessed of their dignities and possessions from the Conquest to the accession of Henry VII. By this time, so complete was the destruction of the baronage, that to his first parliament, held in 1485, there were only summoned twenty-nine temporal barons or lords, several of whom being even newly elevated to the peerage. It however needs to be remarked, that the great political power of the baronage was thenceforward transferred to the collective body of the landholders, whose representatives in the House of Commons have not only successfully laboured to maintain the power of the order, but to free them collectively and individually from the state-liabilities to which their possessions were constitutionally held. This will be fully established in the sequel.

(2). In this reign the House of Commons established five essential checks upon the royal authority.—1. The king could levy no new tax

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279. What were the leading points of Henry's character? To what may most of the troubles and vices of his reign be attributed? What issue did he leave?



without the consent of parliament; 2. The previous assent and authority of the same was necessary for every new law; 3. No man could be committed to prison without a legal warrant, specifying his offence; and he must be speedily brought to trial by means of regular sessions of gaol-delivery; 4. The fact of guilt or innocence on a criminal charge was made determinable in a public court in the county where the offence was alleged to have occurred, by a jury of twelve men, from whose unanimous verdict no appeal could be made; 5. The officers and servants of the crown, violating the personal liberty or other right of the subject, might be sued in an action for damages, to be assessed by a jury, or, in some cases, were liable to criminal process; nor could they plead any warrant, or command in their justification, not even the direct order of the king.

(3). The reign of Henry VII. may be considered as the period when the distinction of ranks ceased to correspond in a general manner with that of races—Saxon and Norman, and as the commencement of the state of society at present existing in England. From that time there is no tradition that the inhabitants of England were divided into two hostile populations—the ruling class who spoke Norman-French, and the mass of the people who spoke English, both were now fused into one people. The real authority of the sovereign was somewhat increased by the barons being reduced to the condition of subjects; and although there were still numbers of bondmen in England, the great body of the people had become free at the close of the fifteenth century.

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## HENRY VIII.

Began to reign April 22nd, 1509;—died January 29th, 1547.

281. *Henry weds Katharine of Arragon—Expedition to France, 1509–12.*—Henry VIII., only surviving son of Henry VII. by Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., was in his eighteenth year at his accession. As his father\* was neither heir to the house of Lancaster nor of York, his legal right to the throne was wholly derived from his mother. Two months after his accession, his marriage was solemnized with his elder brother's widow,† Katharine of Arragon, and both were crowned at Westminster on the 24th of June, 1509. "No prince ever came to the throne with a conjuncture of circumstances more in his favour than Henry VIII. He was the first prince for more than a century who occupied the

281. In what year did the reign of Henry VIII. commence and terminate? From whom did he derive his legal right to the throne? Who did he marry? Under what favourable circumstances did he succeed to the crown?

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\* See note, page 215.

† Katherine was married in 1502, at 18 years of age, to prince Arthur, then a boy of 15, who died five months after.



throne with an undisputed title : he also possessed the love of his subjects ; and the nation was at peace with Europe. But Europe itself was up in arms, through the plots of Ferdinand of Spain and Pope Julius II. against France ; and it was deemed of high importance that the young, wealthy, and powerful king of England should be included in the league against Louis XII. Ferdinand, who was Henry's father-in-law, undertook a negotiation for this purpose, and succeeded. Henry was delighted with the flatteries of the pontiff, and the prospect of the title of Most Christian King, which Louis was declared to have forfeited ; and he began to prepare for war with great activity, while the nation was equally gratified with the prospect of new victories and conquests in France. An army of 10,000 men, chiefly archers, was raised and embarked at Southampton on the 16th of May, 1512, under the command of the marquis of Dorset ; but on arriving at Guisacoa, no traces of that Spanish army was to be found which was to have joined the English on their landing. Ferdinand, who had brought matters to this point, had purposes in view to which his allies were to be passively and unconsciously subservient. Instead therefore of joining them with his forces for the conquest of Guienne, according to agreement, he fell upon the kingdom of Navarre, and conquered it in a few months. In the meantime the English, who could not proceed without their ally, remained impatient and inactive in their camp at Fonterabia, until Guienne was fortified, and the opportunity lost. Thus the selfish Ferdinand had merely used them to keep the French in check until his conquest of Navarre was completed, after which their presence was of no further service ; and they returned home in December discontented, and diminished in numbers, amidst the indignant murmurs of the whole country (1512).

282. *Renewal of War—The Scots defeated at Flodden, 1513.*

—Henry's thirst for glory being unquenched, he affected to be satisfied with the excuses and assurances conveyed to him by Ferdinand, and resolved to prosecute the war with France by land and sea in conjunction with his selfish continental allies. Henry also endeavoured to prevail upon his brother-in-law James IV. of Scotland, to co-operate in his measures, but the Scottish king preferred the ancient alliance with France ; upon which Henry added James to the list of his enemies. England was now preparing at one and the same time for an offensive war with France, and a defensive one with Scotland,

281. Why did Henry go to war with France ? What was the result ?

282. What led Henry to continue the war with France ? Why did his brother-in-law James IV. invade England ?



so that while the wardens were assembling their forces upon the borders, fleets were preparing and troops were mustering at the sea-ports. On June 30th, Henry set sail from Dover with a strong reinforcement to his army before Terouenne, and upon his absence the storm burst from Scotland upon the English border. James entered England with one of the best armies that had ever followed a Scottish king, but so wasted his time in the capture of insignificant border castles, that his army, from want of provisions, began to melt away. In the meantime the earl of Surrey, who had advanced with a numerous array to defend the English frontiers, sent a challenge to the Scottish king to abide his coming in the open field. James, who should have retired before such a force, ended as he had commenced, in the spirit of a knight-errant. He accepted the challenge, against the remonstrances of his best counsellors, and proceeded, with the infatuation of a man doomed to ruin, to prepare for the conflict. The only evidence he gave of reflection was, to take up a strong position on the hill of Flodden, near Wooler, where his flanks were inaccessible and his front defended by the river Till; so that when Surrey advanced, he found an attack impossible, and would soon have been compelled to retreat from want of provisions, had James but exercised a little patience. But Surrey determined to bring on an action by turning the flank of the Scots, a hazardous manœuvre, which James allowed him to execute, looking on like an unconcerned spectator. The engagement began at four in the afternoon on the 9th of September, 1513, by a desperate attack of earls Huntley and Home upon a part of the English van, which they routed and chased from the field. But the English cavalry advancing to the rescue, checked the victorious progress of the two earls, of whom, Huntley's followers were at last defeated, while those of Home, being chiefly borderers, had thrown themselves upon the spoil. The centre of both armies, headed by the king and the earl of Surrey, now joined battle; but James, instead of keeping aloof and watching the changes of the combat, rushed into the fore-front of the conflict, like a common man-at-arms eager to display his personal prowess, while his nobles, ashamed to forsake him, were obliged to follow his example. The shock for a moment was tremendous, but the English squares recovered and stood firm; they then attacked in turn with such uniform vigour, that the undisciplined half-armed Scots were soon trampled down in heaps, or scattered over the field. The situation of James was now desperate, his thinned and exhausted ranks were completely surrounded; but in that trying moment there was no thought of fear, or



word of surrender; the nobles fought by his side, and fell at his feet. Amidst this confusion, the darkness of night at last gathered over the field, and the combatants separated; the English remaining under arms during the night, uncertain as yet on what side the victory had fallen. But this was too sadly known to the Scots, who stole homeward during the darkness in confused groups without a chief to head them. 10,000 men had fallen on each side; but the defeat and loss were most disastrous to Scotland, for not only her king had perished, but her chief nobility, so that every house of name deplored the death of a relative, while some were wholly extirpated. Although the body of James, in a frightfully mangled condition, was dragged from amidst a heap of slain, and afterwards interred by the victors at Richmond, the Scots long persisted in believing that he had escaped from the carnage, and that he would return to their aid. They showed, however, their superiority to despair more wisely, by adopting energetic measures for the national defence; but Surrey, instead of intending an invasion, had only contemplated the defence of the borders, which was now effectually secured.

283. *Henry's Second Expedition—Battle of the Spurs, 1513.*—In the meantime, Henry, who had commenced the siege of Terouenne, was confronted by the arrival of the French army to relieve the town. Every preparation was made for battle; but the French cavalry, after a brilliant charge, in which they succeeded in throwing some gunpowder within reach of the besieged, wheeled round to regain their main body. They were pursued however so closely that their retreat was soon changed into a headlong flight, while their bravest commanders, among whom was the famous chevalier Bayard, were made prisoners. Henry congratulated his illustrious captives on the activity of their soldiers, at which the light-hearted Frenchmen laughingly replied that the whole affair had been only a battle of spurs—by which name the encounter has been ever since distinguished. Terouenne then surrendered; but Henry, instead of pursuing his success by more important achievements, laid siege to Tournay, at the suggestion of the emperor Maximilian, who was now moving the king of England for his own ends as successfully as Ferdinand had done in the previous campaign. In a few days this town also surrendered; but Henry's 30,000 Swiss auxiliaries were so dissatisfied with his dilatory and inconclusive proceedings, that

282. What was king James's fate?

283. Where did Henry proceed to on his second expedition? What success did he meet with? In what encounter was the chevalier Bayard made prisoner? Why was it called the battle of the *Spurs*?



they concluded a separate peace with the king of France, and abandoned their capricious ally. Nothing further could be done, as the season for action had expired; and therefore Henry, after a few tournaments and military pageants, which were more to his taste than real warfare, returned to England on the 22nd of October, 1513.

284. *Naval Warfare in 1512-13—Death of Howard.*—It has been stated that the royal navy had its origin in the reign of Henry VII. (§ 278). This seems to have become necessary from a similar procedure on the part of France. The royal naval power of the two nations first came into collision off the harbour of Brest in the war of 1512. The fight was long and desperate; the two admirals' ships grappled and caught fire, when both blew up, the French vessel with nine hundred, and the English with seven hundred men; and victory inclined at last to the French, but with the loss of Primauguet, their brave commander. This success, however, so exhausted the resources of the conquerors, that they were obliged to hire assistance from Rhodes, Genoa, and other naval allies, before they could sustain another effort; and even then they were obliged to act on the defensive. In 1513, Sir Edward Howard, the lord admiral of England, blockaded them effectually within the harbour of Brest; and then wrote to his royal master, inviting him to come in person, that he might reap the whole glory of their destruction. But instead of Henry, there arrived a sharp reprimand from the council of state, blaming the admiral for his presumption, and commanding him to do his duty. It was a maxim of Howard, that a naval commander was good for nothing unless he was brave to a degree of madness; and being stung, moreover, by this angry message, he made a dash into the harbour, in the hopes of carrying the enemy by boarding. He lashed his ship to that of the French admiral, and leaped upon the deck, sword in hand, followed only by seventeen men; upon seeing which the enemy cast the grapplings loose, and cut in pieces or threw overboard this handful of Englishmen, before assistance could come to their rescue. The last act of the gallant Howard, before he fell, was to take the gold chain and whistle of office from his neck, and throw them into the sea, vowing that such trophies should never belong to an enemy. The English, disheartened by the loss of their leader, retired; and the French were emboldened to venture out, and make some descents on the coast of Sussex; but

283. Why was Henry obliged to return to England?

284. What was the result of the naval battle off Brest? How did the English Admiral meet his death?



they were soon put to flight on the appearance of the English fleet, which resumed possession of the Channel.

285. *Henry's Extravagance—Wolsey, his rise.*—"After his return in 1513 from an ostentatious but ineffectual campaign, Henry continued to dissipate those immense sums which had been amassed by his predecessor, with his pleasures on the one hand, and the preparations for repeated expeditions on the other. As it was natural to suppose the old ministers, who were appointed to direct him by his father, would not willingly concur in these idle projects, Henry had, for some time, discontinued asking their advice, and chiefly confided in the councils of Thomas, afterwards cardinal Wolsey, who seemed to second him in his favourite pursuits. Wolsey was a minister who complied with all his master's inclinations, and flattered him in every scheme to which his sanguine and impetuous temper was inclined. He was the son of a private gentleman, and not of a butcher as is commonly reported, of Ipswich. He was sent to Oxford so early, that he was a bachelor at fourteen, and at that time was called the Boy Bachelor. He rose by degrees, upon quitting college, from one preferment to another, till he was made rector of Lymington by the marquis of Dorset, whose children he had instructed. He had not long resided at this living when one of the justices of the peace put him in the stocks for being drunk, and raising disturbances at a neighbouring fair. This disgrace, however, did not retard his promotion; for he was recommended as chaplain to Henry VII; and being employed by that monarch in a secret negotiation, respecting his intended marriage with Margaret of Savoy, he acquitted himself to that king's satisfaction, and obtained the praise both of diligence and dexterity. That prince having given him a commission to Maximilian, who at that time resided at Brussels, was surprised in less than three days after to see Wolsey present himself before him; and, supposing that he had been delinquent, began to reprove his delay. Wolsey, however, surprised him with the assurance, that he was just returned from Brussels and had successfully fulfilled all his majesty's commands. His dispatch, on that occasion, procured him the deanery of Lincoln; and in this situation it was that he was introduced by Fox, bishop of Winchester, to the young king's notice, in hopes that he would have talents to supplant the earl of Surrey, who was favourite at that time; and in this Fox was not out in his conjectures."

285. What use did Henry VIII. make of the treasures amassed by his father? Who was Wolsey? Relate the particulars of his early life.



286. *Wolsey Premier and Cardinal-Legate, 1513-19.*—"Presently after, being introduced at court, he was made a privy counsellor; and, as such, had frequent opportunities of ingratiating himself with the young king, as he appeared at once complying, submissive, and enterprising. Wolsey used every art to suit himself to the royal temper; he sung, laughed, and danced, with every libertine of the court: neither his own years, which were near forty, nor his character, as a clergyman, were any restraint upon him, or tended to check, by ill-timed severities, the gaiety of his companions. To such a weak and vicious monarch as Henry, qualities of this nature were highly pleasing; and Wolsey was soon acknowledged as his chief favourite, and to him was intrusted the chief administration of affairs. The people began to see with indignation the new favourite's mean condescensions to the king, and his arrogance to themselves. They had long regarded the vicious haughtiness and the unbecoming splendour of the clergy, with envy and detestation; and Wolsey's greatness served to bring a new odium upon that body, already too much the object of the people's dislike. His character being now placed in a more conspicuous point of light, daily began to manifest itself the more. Insatiable in his acquisitions, but still more magnificent in his expense; of extensive capacity, but still more unbounded in enterprise; ambitious of power, but still more desirous of glory; insinuating, engaging, persuasive, and at other times lofty, elevated, and commanding; haughty to his equals, but affable to his dependents; oppressive to the people, but liberal to his friends; more generous than grateful; formed to take the ascendant in every intercourse, but vain enough not to cover his real superiority." The circumstances of his time were propitious to his passion for acquiring money. The Pope, the emperor, the kings of France and Spain, desirous of his sovereign's alliance outbade each other at the sales of a minister's influence, which change of circumstances, and inconsistency of connection, rendered during this period more frequent than in most other times. His preferment was too rapid to be forgiven by an envious world. Born in 1471, he became bishop of Tournay in 1513, of Lincoln in 1514, and archbishop of York in the same year. In 1515 he received a cardinal's hat, and in the same year became Lord High Chancellor of England. In 1519 he was made papal legate, with the extraordinary power of suspending the laws and canons of the church in England.

286. By what arts did Wolsey gain the king's favour? Who flattered the vanity and courted the favour of Wolsey? What preferments did he obtain in church and state?



287. *The Field of Gold-Cloth*, 1528.—“In order to divert the envy of the public from his inordinate exaltation, Wolsey soon entered into a correspondence with Francis I. of France, who had taken many methods to work upon his vanity, and at last succeeded. In consequence of that monarch's wishes, Henry was persuaded by the cardinal to an interview with that prince. This expensive congress was held between Guines and Ardres, near Calais, within the English pale, in compliment to Henry for crossing the sea. Some months before the time fixed for the interview, a defiance had been sent by the two kings to each other's court, and through all the chief cities of Europe, importing that Henry and Francis, with fourteen aids, would be ready in the plains of Picardy to answer all comers, that were gentlemen, at tilt and tourney. Accordingly in June, 1520, the monarchs, now all gorgeously appareiled, entered the lists on horseback; Francis surrounded with Henry's guards, and Henry with those of Francis. They were both at that time the most comely personages of their age, and prided themselves on their expertness in the military exercises. The ladies were the judges in these feats of chivalry; and they put an end to the encounter whenever they thought proper. It is supposed that the crafty French monarch was willing to gratify Henry's vanity, by allowing him to enjoy a petty pre-eminence in these pastimes.”

288. *Money illegally raised*.—“By such means all the immense treasures of the late king were quite exhausted, and the king relied on Wolsey alone for replenishing his coffers. His first care was to get a large sum of money from the people, by forced loans and pretended benevolences, which had already been condemned by the legislature. Wolsey met with some opposition in his attempts to levy these. Having exacted a considerable subsidy from the clergy, he next addressed himself to the House of Commons; but they only granted him half the supplies he demanded. Wolsey was at first highly offended at their parsimony, and desired to be heard in the House; but they replied, that none could be permitted to sit and argue there, unless such as had been elected members. This was the first attempt made in this reign to

287. Where was the congress held between the kings of France and England? What challenge was soon sent by these monarchs to each other's court? Where did these kings meet, and what occurred?

288. On what did the king expend the immense treasures of his father? How did Wolsey attempt to replenish the king's coffers? Was he satisfied with the sum contributed? Did the representatives of the people allow him to speak in the House of Commons?



render the king master of the debates in parliament (1523). Hitherto the administration of all affairs was carried on by Wolsey; for the king was contented to lose in the embraces of his mistresses all the complaints of his subjects. But now a period was approaching that was to put an end to this minister's exorbitant power." This was no less a change than the outbreak of the reformation of religion, one of the most important revolutions which ever employed the attention of man.

289. *The Reformation—Henry Defender of the Faith, 1521.*—"The immediate causes of the Reformation were the vices and impositions of the church of Rome, now almost come to a head; and the increase of arts and learning among the laity, propagated by means of printing, which had been lately invented, began to make them resist that power, which was originally founded on deceit. Leo X. was at that time Pope, and eagerly employed in building the great church of St. Peter at Rome. In order to procure money for carrying on that expensive undertaking, he gave a commission for selling indulgences for sins committed, a practice that had often been tried before. These were to free the purchaser from the pains of purgatory; and they would serve even for one's friends, if purchased with that intention. The Augustine monk Martin Luther, professor in the university of Wirtemberg, began to show his indignation by preaching against the efficacy of indulgence; and being provoked by opposition, he inveighed against the authority of the Pope himself. The religious excitement thereon having become intense, Henry obtained the Pope's permission to read the works of Luther, which had been forbidden under pain of excommunication, being desirous to convince the world of his abilities in school divinity, in which he had been carefully instructed. In consequence of this, the king defended the seven sacraments, out of St. Thomas Aquinas; and sent his book to Rome for the Pope's approbation, which it is natural to suppose would not be withheld. The pontiff, ravished with its eloquence and depth, compared it to the labours of St. Jerome or St. Augustine, and rewarded the author in 1521 with the title of DEFENDER OF THE FAITH; little imagining that Henry was soon to be

288. What important change put an end to the Cardinal's power?

289. What were the immediate causes of the Reformation? What rendered it necessary for Leo X. to raise a large sum of money? To what infamous practice had he recourse? Who preached against the efficacy of *Indulgences*? What permission did Henry VIII. receive from the Pope? Did the Pope approve of Henry's work? With what title did he reward its author?



one of the most terrible enemies that ever the church of Rome had to contend with."

290. *The English Reformation*, 1527.—While studying to maintain error, Henry appears to have discovered that, if it be a sin to marry and to cohabit with a brother's widow, it became imperative in him to be sure that the Pope of Rome had power to permit him to indulge in it. Out of the investigation of this matter arose the reformation of religion in England. "Henry had now been eighteen years married to his brother's widow, Katherine of Arragon. But notwithstanding the submissive deference paid to the indulgence of the church, Henry's marriage with this princess did not pass without scruple and hesitation, both on his own side and on that of the people. However, his scruples were increased, though perhaps not at first excited, by a motive much more powerful than the tacit suggestions of his conscience. It happened that among the maids of honour then attending the queen, there was one Anne Boleyn the daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn, a gentleman of distinction and related to most of the nobility. He had been employed by the king in several embassies, and was married to a daughter of the duke of Norfolk. Anne was then twenty-two years of age, in the flower of youthful beauty, surpassing whatever had hitherto appeared at this voluptuous court; and her education, which had been at Paris, tended to set off her personal charms. Her features were regular, mild, and attractive; her stature elegant, though below the middle size; while her wit and vivacity exceeded even her other allurements. Henry, who had never learned the art of restraining any passion which he desired to gratify, saw and loved her; but after several efforts to induce her to comply with his criminal desires, he found that without marriage he could have no chance of succeeding. This obstacle, therefore, he hardily undertook to remove; and as his own queen was now become hateful to him, in order to procure a divorce, he alleged that his conscience rebuked him for having so long lived in incest with the wife of his brother. In this pretended perplexity, therefore, he applied to Pope Clement VII., who owed him many obligations, desiring him to dissolve the bull of Pope Julius II., which had given him permission to marry Katherine; and to

290. What was the probable immediate origin of the Reformation in England? What was the name of Henry's queen, and to whom had she formerly been married? Did the permission of the Pope satisfy Henry's own mind, or remove the scruples of the people? With whom had Henry then fallen in love? What qualities did she possess? To whom did Henry VIII. apply for a divorce?



declare that it was not in the power, even of the holy see, to dispense with a law so strictly enjoined in scripture. The unfortunate Pope, unwilling to grant, yet afraid to refuse, continued to promise, recant, dispute, and temporise; hoping that the king's passion would never hold out during the tedious course of an ecclesiastical controversy. In this he was entirely mistaken."

291. *Wolsey's Fall and Death, 1529-30.*—Henry's father having permitted him to be instructed in school divinity, which then was the principal object of learned inquiry, he was as well qualified to dispute thereon as Pope Clement himself, "and quickly found, or wrested, many texts in Scripture to favour his opinions or his passions. During the course of a long perplexing negotiation, on the issue of which Henry's happiness seemed to depend, he had at first expected to find in his favourite Wolsey, a warm defender and a steady adherent; but Wolsey seemed to be in the same dilemma with the Pope. On the one hand he was to please his master the king, from whom he had received a thousand marks of favour; and on the other hand, he feared to disoblige the Pope, whose servant he more immediately was, and who had power to punish him. He, therefore, though of all men the most haughty, gave way on this occasion to Campegio, the Pope's nuncio, in all things, pretending a deference to his skill in canon law. Wolsey's scheme of temporising was highly displeasing to the king, but for a while he endeavoured to stifle his resentment, until he could act with more fatal certainty. He for some time looked out for a man of equal abilities and less art; and it was not long before accident threw in his way one Thomas Cranmer, a divine of note at Cambridge, of greater talents, and probably of more integrity. Now finding himself provided with a person who could supply Wolsey's place, he appeared less reserved in his resentments against that prelate. The attorney-general was ordered to prepare a bill of indictment against him; and he was soon after commanded to resign the great seal (1529). Crimes are easily found out against a favourite in disgrace, and the courtiers did not fail to increase the catalogue of his errors. He was ordered to depart from York-place palace; and all his furniture and plate were converted to the king's use. The inventory of his goods being taken, they were found to

290. What line of conduct did the Pope pursue?

291. What part did Wolsey take in Henry's divorce controversy? Was the king satisfied with the conduct of Wolsey? For what did the king look out? Whom did the king select to succeed Wolsey? Did the king then order him to be prosecuted?



exceed even the most extravagant surmises. Of fine holland alone there were found a thousand pieces; the walls of his palace were covered with cloth of gold and silver; he had a cupboard of plate of massy gold; all the rest of his riches and furniture were in proportion, and probably their greatness invited the hand of power. He was soon after arrested by the earl of Northumberland, at the king's command, for high treason, and preparations were made for conducting him from York, where he then resided, to London, in order to take his trial. He at first refused to comply with the requisition, as being a cardinal; but finding the earl bent on performing his commission, he complied, and set out by easy journies for London, to appear as a criminal, where he had acted as a king. In his way he stayed a fortnight at the earl of Shrewsbury's castle of Sheffield; where one day at dinner he was taken ill, not without violent suspicions of having poisoned himself. Being brought forward from thence, he with much difficulty reached Leicester Abbey; where the monks coming out to meet him, he said, 'Father abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you;' and immediately ordered his bed to be prepared. As his disorder increased, an officer being placed near, at once to guard and attend him, he spoke to him a little before he expired, to this effect: 'I pray you have me heartily recommended unto his royal majesty; he is a prince of a most royal carriage, and hath a princely heart, and rather than he will miss, or want any part of his will, he will endanger one-half of his kingdom. I do assure you I have kneeled before him for three hours together, to persuade him from his will and appetite, but could not prevail. Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs. But this is the just reward that I must receive for my indulgent pains and study; not regarding my service to God, but only to my prince.' He died at Leicester Abbey on the 30th of November, 1530, in all the pangs of remorse, and left a life which he had all along rendered turbid by ambition, and wretched by mean assiduities."

292. *Henry marries Anne Boleyn—Declared Head of the Church, 1532-4.*—"The tie that held Henry to the church being thus broken, he resolved to keep no further measures with the pontiff. He therefore privately married Anne Bo-

291. What was found in his house? Who arrested him, and for what crime? Where was he to take his trial? To what has his sickness at the earl of Shrewsbury's been attributed? Relate his speech to the abbot at Leicester abbey.

292. Did the king marry Anne Boleyn without the Pope's authority?



leyn, whom he had created marchioness of Pembroke; the duke of Norfolk, uncle to the new queen, her father, and Dr. Cranmer, being present at the ceremony, on the 14th of November, 1532. Soon after, finding the queen pregnant, he publicly owned his marriage, and to colour over his disobedience to the Pope, with an appearance of triumph, he passed with his beautiful bride through London, with a magnificence greater than had ever been known before." Early in 1533, a statute was enacted, prohibiting all appeals to the court of Rome; Cranmer became primate and legate, and instituted a judicial investigation into the validity of the alleged marriage of Katherine with the king. After being summoned to appear before him for fifteen days, Katherine was pronounced to be contumacious. On the 23rd of May, 1533, Cranmer pronounced his final judgment, declaring the alleged marriage to be null and void, and enjoining the parties no longer to cohabit. He also by another judgment confirmed the marriage with the lady Anne. The decisions of archbishop and legate Cranmer were reversed by the Pope, who commanded Henry to again live with Katherine; whereon the king and parliament threw off all subjection to the see of Rome, and a statute was enacted declaring him supreme Head of the Church of England (Nov. 1534).

293. *Monasteries inspected*, 1535.—"But though Henry had thus separated from the church, yet as the mode of religion to be followed was not as yet known, and as the minds of those who were of opposite sentiments were extremely exasperated, it naturally followed that several must fall a sacrifice in the contest between ancient establishments and modern reformation." His principal ministers of state, the dukes of Norfolk and of Suffolk, and the lord-chancellor More, were friendly to a reformation of abuses in the church, though not prepared for a revolution in her doctrine and constitution. Henry "accordingly empowered Thomas Cromwell, some time the able and faithful secretary of Wolsey, who was now made secretary of state, to send commissioners into the several counties of England, to inspect the monasteries, and to report, with rigorous exactness, the conduct and deportment of such as were resident there. This employment was readily undertaken by his agents, namely, Layton, London, Price, Gage, Peter, and Belasis, who are said to have dis-

292. Who were her parents? Who witnessed the marriage? What induced the king some time after to make it public? What ecclesiastical proceedings were taken against Katherine of Arragon? What was done? Were the judgments confirmed by the Pope? What did the king and parliament then do?



covered monstrous disorders in many of the religious houses. Whole convents of women abandoned to all manner of lewdness, friars accomplices in their crimes, pious frauds everywhere practised to increase the devotion and liberality of the people, and cruel and inveterate factions maintained between the members of many of these institutions. These accusations, whether true or false, were urged with great clamour against these communities, and a general horror was excited in the nation against them."

294. *Suppression of Religious Houses*, 1536.—"As the monks had shown Henry the greatest resistance, he resolved at once to deprive them of future power. He therefore caused a second visitation to be made of the monasteries, and fresh crimes were charged against them; so that his severities were conducted with such seeming justice and success, that in less than two years he became possessed of all the monastic revenues. These, on the whole, amounted to 645, of which 28 had abbots who enjoyed a seat in parliament. 90 colleges were demolished in several counties; 2374 chantries and free chapels, and 110 hospitals. The whole revenue of these establishments amounted to 161,000*l.*, which was about a twentieth part of the then national income. But as great murmurs were excited by some on this occasion, Henry took care that all those who could be useful to him, or even dangerous in cases of opposition, should be sharers in the spoil. He either made a gift of the revenues of the convents to his principal courtiers, or sold them at low prices, or exchanged them for other lands on very disadvantageous terms."

295. *The Bible published in English—The Bloody Statute*, 1537-9.—In 1536 the Bible was ordered to be translated and printed in English, and next year orders were given to place it in all the churches throughout the kingdom. Protestantism had now firmly established itself in Germany, books were there published which condemned the creed of the Romish church, and ridiculed its ceremonies. Henry condemned them, and forbade them to be imported, sold, or kept, and several persons were publicly burnt for having violated the king's orders. In 1539, Henry, desiring to limit the reformation of religion within his own notions, obtained the consent of parliament to his statute of six articles, com-

293. In what state did the inquirers find the convents?

294. What plan did he pursue to deprive the monks of power, and obtain possession of the monastic revenues, and to what did they amount? How did the king quell the murmurs excited by the demolition of the monasteries?

295. What law did Henry now publish?



monly called "the Bloody Statute; by which it was ordained, that whoever, by word or writing, denied transubstantiation; whoever maintained that the communion in both kinds was necessary; whoever asserted that it was lawful for priests to marry; whoever alleged that vows of chastity might be broken; whoever maintained that private masses were unprofitable, or that auricular confession was unnecessary; should be found guilty of heresy, and burned or hanged as the court should determine. As the people were at that time chiefly composed of those who followed the opinions of Luther, and such as still adhered to the Pope, this statute, with Henry's former decrees, in some measure excluded both, and opened a field for persecution, which soon after produced its dreadful harvests. Bainham and Bilney were burned for their opposition to popery. Sir Thomas More and bishop Fisher were beheaded for denying the king's supremacy."

296. *Henry's Inconstancy—Jane Seymour, 1536.*—"Henry's severities to the dissenters from the Romish faith, was preceded by a barbarity of a different nature, arising neither from religious nor political causes, but merely from lust and tyrannical caprice. Anne Boleyn, his queen, had always been a favourer of the Reformation, and consequently had many enemies on that account, who only waited some fit occasion to destroy her credit with the king. His passion depended not on her mental endowments, but on her personal charms, qualities more fitted to excite a violent than a permanent attachment. Intimacy gradually weakened, and at last destroyed the influence which her beauty and elegance at first commanded. Affection which has no stronger hold than external appearances soon languishes, and is easily transferred to new objects possessing similar advantages, or more powerful attractions. Henry had for some time set his heart on Jane Seymour, the daughter of sir John Seymour, one of the queen's maids of honour, and to accomplish his guilty purpose, he found it necessary to sacrifice the honour and life of his amiable consort. It mattered but little to Henry how this was accomplished, and he soon found and embraced his opportunity. A breach arose between them on the occasion of the queen's confinement. Her offspring—a son—was born dead; and, when Henry expressed his disappointment, Anne replied in language more just than courteous. Henry was piqued at her answer; and the sycophants who had observed the growth of his pas-

295. How was it called? Why were Bainham and Bilney burned? Why were Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher beheaded?

296. Why had Anne Boleyn many enemies at court? For whom had Henry now formed an attachment?



sion for Jane Seymour, "were not remiss in raising an accusation against her. Even her uncle the duke of Norfolk, from his attachment to the old religion, took care to produce several witnesses, accusing her of incontinency with some of the meaner servants of the court."

297. *Trial and Execution of Anne Boleyn and others, 1536.*—On the 10th of May, 1536, an indictment for high treason was found by the grand jury of Westminster against the lady Anne, queen of England; her brother lord Rochford; and four persons her alleged paramours: "Henry Norris, groom of the stole; Weston and Brereton, gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber; together with Mark Smeton, a musician. Norris, Weston, Brereton, and Smeton, were two days after tried in Westminster-hall, when Smeton was prevailed upon, by the promise of a pardon, to confess a criminal correspondence with the queen; but he was never confronted with her whom he accused; and his execution, with the rest, shortly after, served to acquit her of the charge. Norris, who had been much in the king's favour, had an offer of his life, if he would confess his crime and accuse his mistress; but he rejected the proposal with contempt, and died professing her innocence and his own." On the following 15th of May, queen Anne and her brother Rochford were tried in a temporary hall erected for that purpose within the Tower, before the duke of Norfolk, created lord high steward for the occasion, assisted by twenty-six lords. Rochford was first brought to trial, seemingly apart from his unhappy sister. His defence was made with so much force and effect, that his judges are said to have been at first divided. "The queen's trial followed: upon what proof or pretence the crime of incest was urged against them is unknown; the chief evidence, it is said, amounted to no more than that Rochford had been seen to lean on her bed before some company. Part of the charge against her was, that she had declared to her attendants that the king never had her heart; which was considered as a slander upon the throne, and strained into a breach of a law statute, by which it was declared criminal to throw any slander upon the king, queen, or their issue. The unhappy queen, though unassisted by counsel, defended herself with great judgment and presence of mind; and the spectators could

296. Who produced witnesses against her, and by what was he induced?

297. Who were pointed out as paramours of the queen? What induced Smeton to confess his guilt? How did Norris act? Who were arraigned with the queen? How did Smeton and Norris act? What charge was preferred against the queen and lord Rochford? Had she counsel at her trial?



not forbear declaring her entirely innocent. She answered distinctly to all the charges brought against her; but the king's authority was not to be controlled; she was declared guilty, and her sentence ran that she should be burned or beheaded at the king's pleasure. On the morning of her execution, her sentence being mitigated into beheading, she sent for Kingstone, the keeper of the Tower, to whom, upon entering the prison, she said, 'Mr. Kingstone, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am sorry for it; for I thought to be dead before this time, and free from a life of pain.' The keeper attempting to comfort her, by assuring her the pain would be very little, she replied, 'I have heard the executioner is very expert; and (clasping her neck with her hands, laughing) I have but a little neck.' When brought to the scaffold, from a consideration of her child Elizabeth's welfare, she would not inflame the minds of the spectators against her prosecutors, but contented herself with saying, 'that she was come to die as she was sentenced by the law.' She would accuse none, nor say anything of the ground upon which she was judged; she prayed heartily for the king, and called him 'a most merciful and gentle prince; that he always had been to her a good and gracious sovereign; and that if any one should think proper to canvass her cause, she desired him to judge the best.' She was beheaded by the executioner of Calais, who was brought over as much more expert than any in England," on the 18th of May, 1536.

298. *Henry weds Jane Seymour—His Cruelties, 1537.*—"The very next day after queen Anne's execution, king Henry married the lady Jane Seymour, his cruel heart being no way softened by the wretched fate of one that had been so lately the object of his warmest affections. He even had ordered his parliament to give him a divorce between her sentence and execution, and archbishop Cranmer (then either the most unhappy or the most abject of men) was required to pronounce the marriage between them to be utterly void for certain just and lawful impediments unknown at the time of its solemnization. By which means the heartless and vindictive king endeavoured to bastardize Elizabeth, the only child he had by her, as he had in the same manner formerly bastardized Mary, his only child by queen Katherine. In the next year (1537), the fires of Smithfield were seen to blaze with unusual fierceness. Those who had adhered to the Pope, or those who followed the doctrines of Luther, were equally the

297. What was her sentence? Relate the circumstances attending her death.

298. Whom did Henry marry the day after Anne Boleyn's execution? How did Henry act towards his only child by Anne Boleyn?



objects of royal vengeance, and ecclesiastical persecution. From the multiplied alterations which were made in the national systems of belief, mostly drawn up by Henry himself, few knew what to think or what to profess. They were ready enough to follow his doctrines, how inconsistent or contradictory soever; but as he was continually changing them himself, they could hardly pursue so fast as he advanced before them. Thomas Cromwell, raised by the king's caprice from being a blacksmith's son to be an earl and minister of state (for tyrants ever raise their favourites from the lowest of the people), together with the primate Cranmer, were both seen to favour the Reformation with all their endeavours. On the other hand, Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, together with the duke of Norfolk, were for leading the king back to his original superstition. In fact, Henry submitted to neither; his pride had long been so inflamed by flattery, that he thought himself entitled to regulate, by his own single opinion, the religious faith of the whole nation. About this time no less than 500 persons were imprisoned for contradicting the opinions delivered in the Bloody Statute; and received protection only from the lenity of Cromwell. Lambert, a school-master, and Dr. Barnes, who had been instrumental in Lambert's execution, felt the severity of the persecuting spirit; and by a bill in parliament, without any trial, were condemned to the flames, discussing theological questions at the very stake. With Barnes were executed one Gerrard, and Jerome, for the same opinions. Three catholics also, whose names were Abel, Fetherstone, and Powel, were dragged upon the same hurdles to execution; and who declared, that the most grievous part of their punishment was the being coupled with such heretical miscreants as were united in the same calamity."

299. *Death of Queen Jane—Anne of Cleves—Cromwell executed, 1537-40.*—Queen Jane Seymour having died on the 13th of October, 1537, twelve days after the birth of prince Edward her first child, Henry again resolved, rather more than two years thereafter, to take another wife. An alliance was accordingly negotiated for him with the princess Anne, sister of the duke of Cleves, a considerable prince on the Lower Rhine, who had lately established Lutheranism in his principality. Henry received her at Dover on the 6th of January,

298. Relate the cruelties and persecution which followed on account of religion.

299. How long did Jane Seymour survive the birth of her first child? What object had he in view by marrying Anne, sister of the duke of Cleves?



1540, "and almost immediately betrayed his disappointment; and he at length resolved to get rid of her and his prime minister together. He had a strong cause of dislike to him for his late unpropitious alliance; and a new motive was soon added for increasing his displeasure. Henry had fixed his affection on Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk; and the only method of gratifying this new passion was, as in former cases, discarding the present queen to make room for a new one. The duke of Norfolk had long been Cromwell's mortal enemy, and eagerly embraced this opportunity to destroy a man he considered as his rival. He therefore made use of all his niece's arts to ruin the favourite; and when his project was ripe for execution, he obtained a commission to arrest Cromwell for high treason, which he effected on the 10th of June, only five months after the king's marriage with Anne of Cleves. Cromwell's disgrace was no sooner known, than all his friends forsook him, except Cranmer, who wrote such a letter to Henry in his behalf, as no other man in the kingdom would have presumed to offer. However, he was accused in parliament of heresy and treason; and, without ever being heard in his own defence, condemned to suffer the pains of death, as the king should think proper to direct. When he was brought to the scaffold, on the 28th of July, his regard for his son hindered him from expatiating upon his own innocence; he thanked God for bringing him to that death for his transgressions; confessed he had often been seduced, but that he now died in the catholic faith." The execution of Cromwell was followed by the divorce of queen Anne; the marriage was declared by parliament null and void, and every person who should presume to say that it was valid was declared subject to the penalty of high treason.

300. *Henry weds Catherine Howard—Her Execution, 1541-2.*—In less than a month after his divorce from Anne of Cleves, Henry wedded Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk. "He was so captivated with the queen's accomplishments, that he gave public thanks for his felicity, and desired his confessor to join with him in the same thanksgiving. This joy, however, was of very short duration. The marriage took place in August, and in November, while the king was at York, upon an intended conference with the king

299. Did he continue long attached to this queen? On whom had Henry now fixed his affection? Of what was Cromwell accused? Who wrote to Henry VIII. on his behalf? What was the fate of Cromwell?

300. Relate the conduct and fate of Catherine Howard.



of Scotland, a man of the name of Lassels waited upon archbishop Cranmer at London, and gave him a very surprising account of the queen's incontinence. When the queen was first examined relative to her crime, she denied the charge; but afterwards, finding that her accomplices were her accusers, she confessed her incontinence before marriage, but denied her having dishonoured the king's bed since their union. Three maids of honour, who were admitted to her secrets, still further alleged her guilt; and some of them confessed having passed the night in the same bed with her and her lovers. The servile parliament, upon being informed of the queen's crime and confession, found her quickly guilty, and petitioned the king that she might be punished with death; that the same penalty might be inflicted on the lady Rochford, the accomplice in her debaucheries; and that her grandmother, the duchess dowager of Norfolk, together with her father, mother, and nine others, men and women, as having been privy to the queen's irregularities, should participate in her punishment. With this petition the king was most graciously pleased to agree; they were condemned to death by an act of attainder, which at the same time made it capital for all persons to conceal their knowledge of the debaucheries of any future queen. It was also enacted, that if the king married any woman who had been incontinent, taking her for a true maid, she should be guilty of treason, in case she did not previously reveal her guilt. The people made merry with this absurd and brutal statute; and it was said, that the king must henceforth look out for a widow. After all these laws were passed, in which the most wonderful circumstance is that a body of men could ever be induced to give their consent, the queen was beheaded on Tower-hill, together with the lady Rochford, who found no great degree of compassion, as she had herself before tampered in blood (Feb., 1542)."

301. *Henry weds Catherine Parr.*—"On the 10th of July, 1543, about a year after the death of the last queen, Henry once more changed his condition, by marrying his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, who, according to the ridiculous suggestions of the people, was, in fact, a widow. She was the wife of the late lord Latimer; and was considered as a woman of discretion and virtue. She was already passed the meridian of life, and managed this capricious tyrant's temper with prudence and success. Still, however, the king's severity to his sub-

300. Why was not the death of lady Rochford lamented?

301. Who was the sixth and last wife of Henry VIII., and to whom had she been formerly married? What was her character, and how did she manage the king?



jects continued as fierce as ever. For some time he had been incommoded by an ulcer in his leg; the pain of which, added to his corpulence and other infirmities, increased his natural irascibility to such a degree, that scarce any of his domestics approached him without terror. It was not to be expected, therefore, that any who differed from him in opinion should, at this time particularly, hope for pardon."

302. *Howard, earl of Surrey—His Execution, 1547.*—

"Though his health was declining apace, yet his implacable cruelties were not the less frequent. His resentments were diffused indiscriminately to all: at one time a protestant, and at another a catholic, were the objects of his severity. The duke of Norfolk, and his son, the earl of Surrey, were the last that felt the injustice of the tyrant's groundless suspicions. The duke was a nobleman who had served the king with talents and fidelity; his son was a young man of the most promising hopes, who excelled in every accomplishment that became a scholar, a courtier, and a soldier. He excelled in all the military exercises which were then in request; he encouraged the fine arts by his practice and example; and it is remarkable, that he was the first who brought our language, in his poetical pieces, to any degree of refinement. He celebrated the fair Geraldine in all his sonnets, and maintained her superior beauty in all places of public contention. These qualifications, however, were no safeguard to him against Henry's suspicions; he had dropt some expressions of resentment against the king's ministers, upon being displaced from the government of Boulogne; and the whole family was become obnoxious from the late incontinence of Catherine Howard, the queen, who was executed. From these motives, therefore, private orders were given to arrest the father and son; and accordingly they were arrested both on the same day and confined to the Tower. Surrey being a commoner, his trial was the more expeditious; and as to proofs, there were many informers base enough to betray the intimacies of private confidence and all the connections of blood. The duchess dowager of Richmond, Surrey's own sister, enlisted herself among the number of his accusers; and Sir Richard Southwell also, his most intimate friend, charged him with infidelity to the king. It would seem that, at this dreary period, there was neither faith nor honour to be found in all

301. What increased Henry's natural irascibility so as to render him an object of terror to his domestics?

302. Who fell last by the injustice of the tyrant? Relate the character of the duke of Norfolk, and of his son the earl of Surrey. Who appeared among the accusers of Surrey?



the nation. Surrey denied the charge, and challenged his accuser to single combat. This favour was refused him; and it was alleged that he had quartered the arms of Edward the Confessor on his escutcheon, which alone was sufficient to convict him of aspiring to the crown. To this he could make no reply; and indeed any answer would have been needless; for neither parliaments nor juries, during this reign, seemed to be guided by any other proofs but the will of the crown. This young nobleman was, therefore, condemned for high treason, notwithstanding his eloquent and spirited defence, and was executed on Tower-hill," on the sixth day thereafter (19th January, 1547).

303. *Norfolk attainted—His Execution stayed, 1547.*—Intimidated by the execution of his son, the duke of Norfolk endeavoured to mollify the king by letters and admissions; but the monster's heart was rarely subject to tender impressions. A bill of attainder was introduced into parliament against him, founded on his admissions, as it was thought he could not so easily have been convicted on a fair hearing by his peers. The royal assent was given to it by a commission on the 27th of January, and orders were sent to the Tower for his execution in the morning. The duke prepared for death, but his execution was prevented by the intervention of an event of far greater importance to the kingdom—the death of Henry during the night.

304. *Death of Henry VIII.—His Character, 1547.*—"The king had been for some time approaching fast towards his end; and for several days all those about his person plainly saw that his speedy death was inevitable. The disorder in his legs was now grown extremely painful; and this, added to his monstrous corpulency, which rendered him unable to stir, made him more furious than a chained lion. He had been very stern and severe; he was now outrageous. In this state he had continued for near four years before his death, the terror of all, and the tormentor of himself; his courtiers having no inclination to make an enemy of him, as they were more ardently employed in conspiring the death of each other. In this manner, therefore, he was suffered to struggle, without any of his domestics having the courage to warn him of his approaching end; as more than once, during this reign,

302. How did Surrey offer to prove his innocence? To what charge could he make no reply? By what were parliaments and juries guided during the reign of this tyrant? How did this young nobleman defend himself? What was his fate?

303. What proceedings were taken against the duke of Norfolk? What prevented his execution?



persons had been put to death for foretelling the death of the king. At last, Sir Anthony Denny had the courage to disclose to him this dreadful secret; and, contrary to his usual custom, he received the tidings with an expression of resignation. His anguish and remorse was at this time greater than can be expressed: he desired that archbishop Cranmer might be sent for; but before that prelate could arrive, he was speechless. Cranmer desired him to give some sign of his dying in the faith of Christ; he squeezed his hand, and immediately expired in his palace of Westminster on the 28th of January, 1547, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign, and in the fifty-sixth year of his age." He left issue one son, Edward, by Jane Seymour; and two daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, the one by Katherine of Arragon and the other by Anne Boleyn. "Some kings have been tyrants from contradiction and revolt; some from being misled by favourites; and some from a spirit of party; but Henry was cruel from a depraved disposition alone; cruel in government, cruel in religion, and cruel in his family. Our divines have taken some pains to vindicate the character of this brutal prince, as if his conduct and our Reformation had any connection with each other. There is nothing so absurd as to defend the one by the other: the most noble designs are brought about by the most vicious instruments; for we see even that cruelty and injustice were thought necessary to be employed in our holy redemption."

305. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). No current historical statements are more mischievously erroneous than that the English parliament has ever been the watchful guardian of the national liberties. On the contrary, the whole course of our history establishes that the Great Councils and Parliaments were ever disposed to sanction the most arbitrary behests of energetic monarchs, so long as these did not materially affect them in their individual interests. The well-being of the commonalty was never an object of their solicitude. Whatever amelioration came to the body of the people was conferred by the justice of the monarch, often however to aid them against the baronial combinations; and from the beneficent action of the common law, to which the commonalty of England owe almost all their liberties and privileges. These truthful expressions are especially applicable to the reign of Henry VIII., whose tyrannies, murders, and illegalities all received the sanction of parliament.

(2). Even the Reformation, that great mental monument which had for its object to purify religion and to emancipate mankind from priestly subjugation, was allowed to be polluted and to be obstructed with the authority of parliament. It was not the unscriptural pretensions and teachings of the church of Rome, nor the impure lives of

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304. In what year of his life and reign did this monster of cruelty expire? What was Henry's general character?



its army of priests, that were objectionable to Henry VIII., but the supremacy which the Roman high-priest claimed to be divinely delegated to him over all matters spiritual and temporal. Henry sought to constitute an Anglican catholic church differing from the Roman catholic church only on the point of the supremacy. His submissive parliaments therefore gave him authority to determine what the English people ought to believe, to burn those who dissented from his creed, and to hang as traitors those who owned the authority of the Pope!

(3). In 1539 parliament even passed an act (31 H. 8, c. 8), "that proclamations by the king in council should be obeyed as though they were made by an act of parliament, under such pains as such proclamations shall appoint."

(4). Also in 1539, parliament authorised Henry VIII. to confiscate the whole monastic possessions, amounting to about one-fifth of the soil of England, and to deal with that vast property as if it were his private estate, notwithstanding all his promises and protestations that it should be appropriated and employed solely for national purposes. To illustrate the worthlessness of Henry's promises, and the uniform connivance of parliament at the conversion of public into private property, it is desirable to record in this work the royal propositions communicated to both houses of parliament in order to obtain its authority to invest the king with absolute power over the confiscated monastic property of 645 Abbeys, 152 Colleges, and 129 Hospitals:—"That if the parliament would give unto him all the abbies, priories, nunneries, and other monastic property, *that for ever in time to come, he would take order that the same should not be converted to private use*: but 1st, That his exchequer for the purposes aforesaid should be enriched; 2nd, That the kingdom would be strengthened by a continual maintenance of 40,000 well-trained soldiers, with skilful officers and commanders; 3rd, That the benefit and ease of the subjects, who never afterwards in any time to come should be charged with subsidies, fifteenths, or other common aids; and 4th, That lest the honour of the realm should receive any diminution of honour by the dissolution of the said monasteries, there being twenty-nine lords of parliament of the abbots and priors, that the king would make a number of nobles. The said monasteries were [accordingly] given to the king by authority of divers acts of parliament, but *no provision was therein made for the said project, or any part thereof*."—Lord Coke, 4 Inst. 43, 44.

(5). From parliament Henry likewise obtained its sanction to bastardise the princesses Mary and Elizabeth, and to bequeath the nation by will. About three years before his death, he also obtained a statute, which, after the failure of male progeny, limited the succession to Mary and Elizabeth, without any consideration of their irreconcilable claims or of their common illegitimacy; on condition, however, of these princesses observing the terms, if any, to be prescribed by the king; and in the case of their death or forfeiture, the unlimited power of devise was re-vested in the crown (35 H. 8. c. 4). The king's property in the people of England was still maintained, as his daughters were not to inherit by the fundamental laws, but to receive a conditional and defeasable authority under his will. By this will executed one month before his death, all the powers of government were, during the minority of his only son prince Edward, vested in fifteen persons therein named, who were designated executors in accordance with Henry's ideas of ownership in the territory and people of England.



## EDWARD VI.

Began to reign January 29th, 1547;—died July 6th, 1553.

306. *Edward VI. crowned—General Pardon.*—For three days after the death of Henry VIII. no notice was taken of it. On the fourth day, the 31st of January, 1547, his only son Edward, then nine years old, was brought in regal state to London and proclaimed king of England. The body of Henry was not buried till the 16th of February: it lay in state in the chapel at Whitehall during several days, and masses were continually performed: it was then taken to Windsor and deposited near the body of queen Jane Seymour. On the 20th of February, the young king was crowned at Westminster and a general pardon issued at the same time. In place of the usual coronation ceremony an innovation was introduced illustrative of the despotic character of Edward's ministers. In place of the ancient coronation oath taken by the kings to preserve the liberties of the realm, and especially those granted by Edward the Confessor, the archbishop presented Edward to the people, as rightful and undoubted inheritor by the laws of God and man to the royal dignity and crown imperial of this realm, &c. This alteration of the oath is a striking illustration of the solicitude then entertained by the king's ministers to suppress every recollection that could make the Tudor sovereignty appear to be of popular origin.

307. *Hertford, duke of Somerset, Protector.*—As Henry's death occurred at the very moment of the downfall of the ducal house of Howard—the leaders of the old nobility and the chiefs of the old faith, the fifteen executors of his will, which was executed when he lay on his death-bed, were chiefly taken from "the new nobility," invidiously so called by their enemies, both because they were partisans of the Reformation and because they owed their sudden rise in wealth to a share of the monastic lands. By Henry's will his executors were empowered, as sanctioned by statute (29 H. 8, c. 7), to exercise the royal authority until the king completed his eighteenth year. The council of regency,

306. In what year did the reign of Edward VI. commence and end? When was his father's death made public? Where was Henry VIII. buried? What innovation was made at this time in the coronation ceremony?

307. From what party were Henry's executors chosen? Why were they called the new nobility?



being conscious of their inability to carry on the government in the despotic manner of the late king, obtained from Edward's first parliament the repeal of the new statute of treasons and of giving legislative validity to the king's proclamations. Dissensions and intrigues soon arose in the ill-assorted regency; the crafty Seymour, earl of Hertford, now become duke of Somerset, secretly obtained from the boy-king, who was incapable during his minority of any valid act, a patent constituting him sole regent under the name of Protector, with the assistance indeed of the rest as his councillors but with the power of adding any others to their number.

308. *War with Scotland, 1547.*—On Seymour establishing himself as protector, he reopened negotiations for the marriage of his juvenile sovereign with the infant Mary, queen of Scots, then five years old, which had been broken off by the arbitrary procedure of Henry VIII., who at last sought to obtain forcible possession of his niece, and failing that, devastated Scotland with fire and sword in 1453. This kind of courtship however made the Scots more unanimous in their resistance, and even those nobles who had been enriched by Henry's gold now opposed the alliance. The favourable opportunity was thereby lost of uniting the two kingdoms. As the papal authority was still predominant in Scotland, the Scottish nobles were induced to refuse the protestant Seymour's application. Upon this, the protector resolved to accomplish the measure in the manner of Henry VIII., that is, by force of arms. He collected an army of 20,000 men and a fleet of sixty-five vessels, with which he invaded Scotland at the end of August, 1547. The land forces, after ravaging the country as they advanced, encamped in the neighbourhood of Musselburgh, where they were confronted by the Scots; and, after a few preliminary skirmishes, both parties prepared for battle on the 10th of September—a day long remembered in Scotland under the title of "Black Saturday." The Scots, who were fired with religious as well as national hatred against their enemies, were eager lest they should escape, on which account they rashly abandoned their strong position, and advanced to the attack; but on being vigorously resisted, the Scots at first slowly retreated and afterwards fled in the utmost disorder. The country far and wide was thronged with fugitives; while the fields were

307. What were the first acts of the regency? How did Somerset become protector?

308. What occasioned the war with Scotland? Who commanded the English army? Where was the battle fought? What were its results?



bestrewn with the weapons, which they threw away to expedite their escape, and with the bodies of those who were overtaken and trampled down by the English cavalry: 13,000 Scots are said to have perished in the flight and pursuit, while only 1500 were taken prisoners; a circumstance which shows the intensity of hatred with which the English were animated on the occasion. This conflict has been commonly called the battle of Pinkie, from the mansion of that name which stood in the neighbourhood. It was now expected that Somerset would follow up his success, but instead of advancing, he commenced his march for England, and crossed the Tweed on the 29th. His victory, also, so far from having accomplished the matrimonial union of the two crowns, extinguished every prospect of such an event; for on a proposal being made by the French court to unite the infant queen of Scotland in marriage with the dauphin, the measure was gladly assented to by the Scottish nobles, in consequence of which a powerful French force was sent to their aid; and Mary Stuart, now in her sixth year, was sent to the court of France, to be educated as its future queen. A desultory warfare was continued; but the aid afforded by the French veterans was so effective, that the subsequent incursions conducted upon a small scale were wholly abortive, and in most cases attended with signal defeat. No other military movements of importance occurred during the reign of Edward VI.

309. *Formal Establishment of Protestantism, 1547.*—"The protector, in his schemes for advancing the Reformation, had always recourse to the counsels of archbishop Cranmer, who, being a man of moderation and prudence, was averse to violent changes and determined to bring over the people by insensible innovations to his own peculiar system." Persecutions under the Bloody Statute ceased (§ 295), prisoners were released, exiles were recalled. A committee of bishops and divines was appointed by the council of regency to frame a liturgy in the English language for the service of the church; and this work was executed with great moderation, precision, and accuracy. A law was also enacted, permitting priests to marry: the ceremony of auricular confession, though not abolished, was left at the discretion of the people, who were not displeased at being freed from the spiritual tyranny of their instructors; the doctrine of the real presence was the last tenet of popery that was wholly abandoned by the

309. What innovations did Somerset now effect in religion? What work did a committee of bishops and divines execute? What did it enact?



people, as both the clergy and laity were loath to renounce so miraculous a benefit as it was asserted to be. However, at last, not only this, but all the principal opinions and practices of the papal religion, contrary to what the scripture authorises, were abolished; and the Reformation, such as we have it, was almost entirely completed in England. With all these innovations the people and clergy in general acquiesced; and bishops Gardiner and Bonner were the only persons whose opposition was thought of any weight: they were, therefore, sent to the Tower, and threatened with the king's further displeasure in case of disobedience." A parliament was then assembled on the 4th of November, 1547, in which several bills were introduced to promote and enlarge the Reformation. The communion was appointed to be received in both kinds by the laity as well as clergy, without condemning the usages of other churches. Bishops were to be formally nominated by the king; process in the ecclesiastical courts was to run in the king's name. The uniformity of public worship was established, in which all ministers were enjoined to use only the Book of Common Prayer prepared by the prelates, the foundation of that which, after various subsequent alterations, continues in use to this day. In short the Reformation, such as we have it, was then almost entirely completed in England. For all the changes made the protector gained great applause and popularity.

310. *Discontent of the Commonalty.*—In 1549 the distress of the poor in England became general on account of the great advance in the price of provisions, in consequence of the fall in the value of money now going on, and the low rate of money wages, as fixed by the statute of labourers (§ 220-6). Another source of discontent was the enclosure of considerable portions of land, formerly belonging to the monasteries, which had been theretofore left for the common use of the poor. They were also said to be dissatisfied with the abolition of high mass, and its impressive music. All these circumstances united caused serious insurrections in several counties, particularly in Norfolk, where a tanner named Ket headed the insurgents, drove the king's forces out of Norwich, killing lord Sheffield, and a hundred of his men. The alarmed council recalled the army from Scotland, and sent it under the command of the earl of Warwick against Ket and his 20,000 followers. A sanguinary

309. Who refused acquiescence in these innovations, and what was the consequence? Did the protector gain popularity by these measures?

310. What was the cause of discontent among the peasantry? Where did it break out? Who was the principal leader in the insurrections?



battle ensued, in which the insurgents lost 2,000 men. The remainder bravely maintained themselves, until Warwick promised that pardon would be granted except to Ket and ten other leaders.

311. *Somerset unpopular—His Fall, 1549.*—These disturbances were attributed to the bad administration of Somerset, whose despotic arrogance had left him scarcely a friend, and whose enemies only suppressed their resentment to wait an opportunity of revenge. “Of all the ministers, at that time in the council, Dudley, earl of Warwick, was the most artful, ambitious, and unprincipled. Resolved, at any rate, to possess the principal place under the king, he cared not what means were to be used in acquiring it. However, unwilling to throw off the mask, he covered the most exorbitant views under the fairest appearances. Having associated himself with the earl of Southampton, he formed a strong party in the council, who were determined to free themselves from the control the protector assumed over them. That nobleman was, in fact, now grown obnoxious to a very prevailing party in the kingdom. He was hated by the nobles for his superior magnificence and power; he was hated by the papists for his regard to the Reformation; he was disliked by many for his severity to his brother lord Sudley, whom he caused to be executed on a charge of high treason; besides, the great estate he had raised at the expense of the church and the crown, rendered him obnoxious to all. The palace which he was then building in the Strand, which now bears his name (Somerset-house), served also, by its magnificence, and still more by the unjust methods that were taken to raise it, to expose him to the censures of the public. The parish church of St. Mary, with three bishops’ houses, were pulled down to furnish ground and materials for the structure. On the 14th of October, 1549, he was sent to the Tower; and the chief article of which he was accused was his usurpation of the government, and the taking all power into his own hands; but his great riches was the real cause. Several others of a slighter tint were added to invigorate this accusation, but none of them could be said to amount to high treason. In consequence of these, a bill of attainder was preferred against him in the House of Lords; but Somerset contrived for this

310. What was his fate?

311. To whom were the disturbances in the provinces attributed? Who was the most formidable of his enemies? What was his character? By whom was the protector hated? What exposed him to the censures of the public? Of what was Somerset accused, and what was the real cause of his imprisonment?



time to elude the rigour of their sentence, by having previously, on his knees, confessed the charge before the members of the council." By this admission and humiliation he saved his life, and obtained his liberation from prison on payment of a fine of £2000 per annum in land, and the surrender of all his goods, besides the forfeiture of his offices.

312. *Warwick-Northumberland, Premier, 1550.* — Warwick, now the undisputed chief of the government, allowed Somerset to resume his seat in the council of state, on the 8th of April, 1550; and lord Lisle, the eldest son of Warwick, even married the duke's daughter. This apparent reconciliation revived Somerset's ambition, and led him to keep armed retainers, either intended to be employed for defence or offence. "He likewise could not help now and then bursting out into invectives against the king and government, which were quickly carried to his secret enemy, the earl of Warwick, who was now become duke of Northumberland. As he was surrounded with that nobleman's creatures, they took care to reveal all the designs which they had themselves first suggested; and Somerset soon found the fatal effects of his rival's resentment. On the 17th of October, 1551, Somerset was, by Northumberland's command, arrested, with many more, accused of being his partisans; and he was, with his wife, the duchess, also committed to the Tower. He was now accused of having formed a design to raise an insurrection in the north; of attacking the train-bands on a muster-day; of plotting to secure the Tower, and to excite a rebellion in London. These charges he strenuously denied; but he confessed to one of as heinous a nature, which was, that he had laid a project for murdering Northumberland, Northampton, and Pembroke, at a banquet which was to be given them by lord Paget. He was brought to trial on the 1st of December following, before the marquis of Winchester, who sat as high-steward on the occasion, with 27 peers more, including Northumberland, Pembroke, and Northampton, who were at once his judges and accusers; and being found guilty, brought to the scaffold on Tower-hill, where he appeared without the least emotion, in the midst of a vast concourse of the populace, by whom he was beloved. He spoke to them with great com-

311. What did he confess to the privy council? What was the consequence of this confession? What punishment was inflicted upon him?

312. Who was Somerset's secret enemy, and what did he report to the king? What were the effects of Northumberland's resentment? Of what was Somerset accused? What did he confess? What was the sentence pronounced by his judges? Relate his behaviour on the scaffold.



posure, protesting that he had always promoted the service of his king, and the interests of true religion, to the best of his power. The people attested their belief of what he said, by crying out, 'It is most true.' A universal tumult was beginning to take place; but Somerset desiring them to be still, and not interrupt his last meditations, but to join with him in prayer, he laid down his head, and submitted to the stroke of the executioner, on the 22nd of January, 1552."

313. *Intrigues to settle the Crown on Lady Jane Grey.*—"In the meantime, the duke of Northumberland had long aimed at the first authority; and the infirm state of the king's health opened alluring prospects to his ambition. He represented to that young prince, that his sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, who were appointed by Henry's will to succeed in failure of direct heirs to the crown, had been declared illegitimate by parliament; that the dowager queen of Scots, his aunt, stood excluded by the king's will, and being an alien also, lost all right of succeeding; and as the three princesses were thus legally excluded, the succession naturally devolved to the marchioness of Dorset,\* whose next heir was the lady Jane Grey, a lady every way accomplished for government, as well by the charms of her person as the virtues and acquirements of her mind. The king, who had long submitted to all the politic views of this designing minister, agreed to have the succession submitted to the council of regency, where Northumberland had influence soon after to procure an easy concurrence. As the king's health declined, the minister laboured to strengthen his own interests and connections. His first aim was to secure the interests of the marquis of Dorset, father to lady Jane Grey, by procuring for him the title of duke of Suffolk, which was lately become extinct. Having thus obliged this nobleman, he then proposed a match between his fourth son, lord Guildford Dudley, and the lady Jane Grey, whose interests he had been at so much pains to advance. Still bent on spreading his interests as widely as possible, he married his own daughter to lord Hastings; and had these marriages solemnised with all possible pomp and festivity."

313. At what had Northumberland long aimed? On whom did he persuade Edward VI. that the succession naturally devolved? Who was the marchioness of Dorset? Did the king agree to the succession recommended by Northumberland? How did Northumberland attempt to secure the interest of Dorset? Between whom did he propose a match? To whom had he married his own daughter?

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\* Eldest daughter of Frances, elder daughter of Mary, younger sister of Henry VIII., by Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk (§ 279).



314. *Death of Edward VI.*—"Meanwhile, Edward continued to languish, and several fatal symptoms of a consumption began to appear. It was hoped, however, that his youth and temperance might get the better of his disorders; and, from their love, the people were unwilling to think him in danger. It had been remarked, indeed, by some, that his health was visibly seen to decline from the moment that the Dudleys were brought about his person. The character of Northumberland might have justly given some colour to suspicion; and his removing all, except his own emissaries, from about the king, still further increased the distrusts of the people. Northumberland, however, was no way uneasy at their murmurs; he was assiduous in his attendance upon the king, and professed the most anxious concern for his safety; but still drove forward his darling scheme of transferring the succession to his own daughter-in-law. After using the medicines of an ignorant woman, who very confidently undertook his cure, all the king's bad symptoms increased to a most violent degree; he felt a difficulty of speech and breathing; his pulse failed; his legs swelled; his colour became livid; and many other symptoms appeared of his approaching end. He expired at Greenwich, on the 16th of July, 1553, in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign, greatly regretted by all, as his early virtues gave a prospect of the continuance of a happy reign."

314\*. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). It is deserving of notice that Edward's ministers, the founders of the Church of England nearly as at present established, held that the bishops were merely the official rulers of their dioceses, and that their appointments were determined by the demise of the crown, which required all prelates to hold their bishoprics by letters patent from the king during good behaviour.

(2). The toleration of heresy was deemed both by the Romanists and the Anglicans as unreasonable as it would now be thought to propose the impunity of murder. The open exercise of any worship except that established by law was considered as a mutinous disregard of lawful authority, in which perseverance therein was considered a very culpable contumacy.

(3). Although there were no protestant nonconformists at this period, yet the last act of uniformity (5 & 6 E. 6, 1) passed in this reign may be considered as the earliest instance of penal legislation pointed against pure dissenters. It commanded all persons to attend public worship under pain of ecclesiastical censures, and of six months' im-

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314. What was observed with respect to the king's health from the time the Dudleys were about his person? Into whose hands was the king put for the recovery of his health? Where, and in what year of his life and reign did he die? Why was his death greatly regretted?



prisonment for the first offence, twelve for the second, and for the third confinement for life.

(4). In the first year of this reign no less than 2374 chantries, free chapels, and colleges, were abolished by statute (c. 14) and given to the crown. The statute declared that these foundations were thus annexed for purposes of the greatest national utility—to be appropriated for erecting schools, for augmenting the seminaries of learning in the universities of Oxford and of Cambridge, for the better provision of the poor, and for discharging the debts of the king, a boy then nine years old! But the greater part of this large mass of property was embezzled by the king's ministers. Nor was this the only ecclesiastical plunder in Edward's short reign. For the bishop of Winchester and others were deprived of many of their manors, and obliged to change the property they had, for lands and rights of inferior value. In addition, the ministers of state at this period also appropriated many of the crown domains, and left the king involved in a debt, amounting to above £240,000, equivalent in exchangeable value to nearly £2,000,000 on the average of the last fifty years.

(5). There is no evidence whatever, either in the reign of Henry VIII. or of Edward VI., that parliament ever remonstrated against the plunder of the crown (or state) property: but in this reign it did refuse its sanction to a new law of treason, which might have been made to entrap some of the members; nor does it appear that the House of Commons exercised its privilege of remonstrating against the direct interference of the king's ministers in the election of its members. Thus, the privy council were not stopped from issuing circular letters commanding the sheriffs to obtain the return of persons therein named as knights for the shires; all of whom belonged to the court, or were in places of trust about the king (Strype, ii. 394).

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### MARY.

Began to reign, July 16th, 1553 ;—died December 1st, 1558.

315. *Princess Mary and Lady Jane Grey proclaimed.*—“ Upon the death of Edward VI. two candidates put in their pretensions to the throne ” The lady Jane Grey was proclaimed queen at London by the council of regency, and the princess Mary at Norwich by their opponents. Although the council concealed the event from the public for two days, Mary, the elder daughter of Henry VIII., obtained private information of it and of the designs of her enemies, a few hours thereafter at Hoddesdon, twenty miles from London,

315. In what years did the reign of Mary commence, and terminate? How many candidates appeared for the crown? Of whom was Mary the daughter?



where she then resided. By an immediate flight to Framlingham Castle in Suffolk, Mary escaped being sent a prisoner to the Tower. From thence on the 9th, she sent a letter to the privy council, expostulating with them for their undutiful concealment of the king's death, solemnly affirming her title, and tendering an unreserved pardon on condition of their causing her to be immediately proclaimed. In their answer they declared their unshaken adherence to the lawful title of queen Jane: both parties then prepared to decide the contest by an appeal to arms. Mary sent circular letters to all the great towns and nobility in the kingdom, reminding them of her right, and commanding them to proclaim her without delay; and the council put the whole public authority and ordinary military force in motion to maintain their authority.

316. *Character of the Princess Mary and of Lady Jane.*—

“Mary was strongly bigoted to the popish superstitions, having been bred up among churchmen, and having been even taught to prefer martyrdom to a denial of belief. As she had lived in continual restraint, she was reserved and gloomy; she had, even during the life of her father, the resolution to maintain her sentiments, and refused to comply with his new institutions. Her zeal had rendered her furious; and she was not only blindly attached to her religious opinions, but even to the popish clergy who maintained them. On the other hand, Jane Grey was strongly attached to the reformers; and though yet but sixteen, her judgment had attained to such a degree of maturity, as few have been found to possess. All historians agree, that the solidity of her understanding, improved by continual application, rendered her the wonder of her age. Jane, who was in a great measure ignorant of all the transactions in her favour, was struck with equal grief and surprise when she received intelligence of them. She shed a flood of tears, appeared inconsolable, and it was not without the utmost difficulty that she yielded to the entreaties of Northumberland, and the duke her father. Orders were given also for proclaiming her throughout the kingdom; but these were but very remissly obeyed. When she was proclaimed in the city, the people heard her accession made public without any signs of pleasure: no applause ensued, and some even expressed their scorn and contempt.”

315. In what way did she show her activity and spirit?

316. Among whom had Mary been bred up, and what had she been taught? What was the consequence of her having lived in continual restraint? To what was she blindly attached? Relate the character of lady Jane Grey and her conduct on receiving intelligence of her exaltation. Did the public hail her accession? How did Mary act?



317. *London declares for Mary—Northumberland executed.* —“Mary’s claims soon became irresistible; in five days she found herself at the head of 40,000 men; while the few who attended Northumberland continued irresolute,” and he even retreated from Framlington to Cambridge, from whence he wrote to the council for reinforcements. A public meeting was then held in London, at which the earls of Arundel and of Pembroke declared in favour of Mary, which was received with a shout of approbation. She was immediately after proclaimed queen at St. Paul’s-cross; and the same night there were illuminations, bonfires, and other rejoicings (19th of July, 1553). “Lady Jane, thus finding that all was lost, resigned her royalty, which she had held but ten days, with marks of real satisfaction, and retired with her mother to their own habitation. Northumberland also, who found his affairs desperate and that it was impossible to stem the tide of popular opposition, attempted to quit the kingdom; but he was prevented by the band of pensioner guards, who informed him that he must stay to justify their conduct in being led out against their lawful sovereign. Thus circumvented on all sides, he delivered himself up to Mary and was sent to the Tower, where he was soon after executed in a summary way. Sentence was also pronounced against lady Jane and lord Guildford, but without any intention for the present of putting it in execution.”

318. *Romanism restored—Mary affianced to Philip of Spain.* —“Mary now entered London, and, with very little effusion of blood, saw herself joyfully and peaceably settled on the throne. This was a flattering prospect; but soon this pleasing phantom was dissolved. Mary was morose, and a bigot; she was resolved to give back their former power to the clergy; and thus once more to involve the kingdom in all the horrors it had just emerged from. The prelates Gardiner, Tonstal, Day, Heath, and Vesey, who had been confined, or suffered losses, for their popish opinions, during the late reigns, were taken from prison, reinstated in their bishopricks, and their former sentences repealed.” The gentle but timid and pliant Cranmer was committed to the Tower on the 2nd of September, and on the 13th he was followed by Lati-

317. At the head of how many men did she soon find herself? Why did Northumberland not lead on his troops to battle? What measure did lady Jane Grey then adopt? What did Northumberland then attempt? What prevented his accomplishing it? What was his fate? What sentence was pronounced on lady Jane and lord Guildford? How was the declaration in favour of Mary received in London?

318. To whom did she resolve to give back their former power?



mer, a man in all respects but in his religious belief directly opposite to the primate; being brave, sincere, honest, inflexible, exercising his power over men's minds by a fervid eloquence, plain, pithy, and free-spoken. A parliament which the queen called in October seemed willing to concur in all her measures; they at one blow repealed all the statutes with regard to religion, which had passed during the reign of her predecessors; so that the national religion was again placed on the same footing on which it stood at the death of Henry VIII. While religion was thus turning to its former abuses, the queen's ministers, who were willing to strengthen her power by a Roman catholic alliance, had been looking out for a proper consort; and they at last pitched upon Philip, prince of Spain and son to the celebrated Charles V. In order to avoid, as much as possible, any disagreeable remonstrances from the people, the articles of marriage were drawn as favourable as possible to the interests and honour of England; and this in some measure stilled the clamours that had already been begun against it."

319. *Wyat's Insurrection—Dudley and Lady Jane executed.*—"Still, the discontents of the people with the Spanish match rose to such a pitch, that an insurrection, headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt, succeeded; but Wyatt, being made prisoner, was condemned and executed, with some of his adherents. But what excited the compassion of the people most of all was the execution of lady Jane Grey and her husband lord Guildford Dudley, who were involved in the punishment, though not in the guilt, of this insurrection. Two days after Wyatt was apprehended, lady Jane and her husband were ordered to prepare for death. Lady Jane, who had long before seen the threatening blow, was no way surprised at the message, but bore it with heroic resolution; and being informed that she had three days to prepare, she seemed displeased at so long a delay. On the day of her execution her husband desired permission to see her; but this she refused, as she knew the parting would be too tender for her fortitude to withstand. The place at first designed for their execution was without the Tower; but their youth, beauty, and innocence, being likely to raise an insurrection among the people, orders were

318. What did the first parliament repeal? Why did the queen's ministers pitch upon Philip, prince of Spain, for her consort? In what manner were the articles of marriage framed with respect to England?

319. What was the consequence of the discontentment of the people? To whom did the insurrection of Wyatt prove fatal? Describe the conduct of lady Jane when ordered to prepare for death, and her behaviour at the place of execution.



given that they should be executed within the verge of the Tower. Lord Dudley was the first that suffered." Lady Jane saw him from her prison window going towards the scaffold; and on looking shortly after from the same window, perceived his bleeding carcass, imperfectly covered in the cart which bore it from the scaffold. The abbot of Westminster in vain attempted to lead her into the Romish faith. She however behaved to him with such calmness and sweetness that he obtained for her a day's respite. Next day, the 13th of February, 1554, lady Jane was taken to the scaffold and there "made a speech, in which she alleged that her offence was not the having laid her hand upon the crown, but the not rejecting it with sufficient constancy; that she had less erred through ambition than filial obedience; and she willingly accepted death as the only atonement she could make to the injured State; and was ready by her punishment to show, that innocence is no plea in excuse for deeds that tend to injure the community. After speaking to this effect, she caused herself to be disrobed by her women, and with a steady, serene countenance, submitted to the executioner."

320. *Bishops Ridley and Latimer burnt, 1555.*—"At the head of those who urged forward these violent measures, were Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and cardinal Pole, who was now returned from Italy. Pole, who was nearly allied by birth to the royal family, had always conscientiously adhered to the catholic religion, and had incurred Henry's displeasure, not only by refusing to assent to his measures, but by writing against him. It was for this adherence that he was cherished by the Pope, and now sent over to England as legate from the holy see. Gardiner was a man of a very different character; his chief aim was to please the reigning prince, and he had shown already many instances of his prudent conformity. A persecution therefore began by the martyrdom of Hooper, bishop of Gloucester, and Rogers, prebendary of St. Paul's. They were examined by commissioners appointed by the queen, with the chancellor—bishop Gardiner at the head of them. Saunders and Taylor, two other clergymen, whose zeal had been distinguished in carrying on the Reformation, were the next that suffered. Bonner, bishop of London, bloated at once with rage and luxury, let loose his vengeance

320. Who were at the head of these bloody measures? How had Pole incurred the displeasure of Henry VIII.? In what capacity was he sent over to England by the Pope? What was the character of Gardiner? Who were the clergymen who suffered for favouring the Reformation? Whom did the queen encourage to persecute with the greatest cruelty?



without restraint, and seemed to take a pleasure in the pains of the unhappy sufferers; while the queen, by her letters, exhorted him to pursue the pious work without pity or interruption. Soon after, in obedience to her commands, Ridley, bishop of London, and the venerable Latimer, bishop of Worcester, were condemned together. Ridley had been one of the ablest champions for the Reformation; his piety, learning, and solidity of judgment, were admired by his friends, and dreaded by his enemies. The night before his execution, he invited the mayor of Oxford and his wife to see him: and when he beheld them melted into tears, he himself appeared quite unmoved, inwardly supported and comforted in that hour of agony. When he was brought to the stake to be burnt at Oxford on the 16th of October, 1555, he found his old friend Latimer there before him. Of all the prelates of that age, Latimer was the most remarkable for his unaffected piety and the simplicity of his manners. He had never learnt to flatter in courts; and his open rebuke was dreaded by all the great, who at that time too much deserved it. His sermons, which remain to this day, show that he had much learning and much wit; and there is an air of sincerity running through them, not to be found elsewhere. When Ridley began to comfort his ancient friend, Latimer was as ready, on his part to return the kind office: 'Be of good cheer, brother (cried he), we shall this day kindle such a torch in England, as, I trust in God, shall never be extinguished.' A furious bigot ascended to preach to them and the people, while the fire was preparing; and Ridley gave a most serious attention to his discourse. No way distracted by the preparations about him, he heard him to the last; and then told him, that he was ready to answer all that he had preached upon, if he were permitted a short indulgence: but this was refused him. At length fire was set to the pile: Latimer was soon out of pain; but Ridley continued to suffer much longer, his legs being consumed before the fire reached his vitals."

321. *Primate Cranmer burnt.*—Cranmer's death followed on the 22nd of March, 1556, and struck the whole nation with horror. His love of life had formerly prevailed. In an unguarded moment he was induced to sign a paper condemn-

320. What two bishops were by her command condemned to die together? What was the character of Ridley? Whom did he invite to see him the night before he suffered, and how did he receive them? What was the character of Latimer? In what terms did he address his friend Ridley at the place of execution?

321. Where and when was Cranmer burnt? What was the effect of archbishop Cranmer's death? What paper had he signed in an unguarded moment?



ing the Reformation ; and now his enemies, as we are told of the devil, after having rendered him completely wretched, resolved to destroy him." On his way to the stake, in front of Baliol College, Oxford, he said, ' Now I am come to the great thing that troubles my conscience more than any other thing that I ever said or did in my life, and that is the setting abroad of writings contrary to the truth ; which here now I renounce and refuse as things written with my hand, contrary to the truth which I thought in my heart, and writ for fear of death and to save my life if might be, and that is all such papers as I have written or signed since my degradation, wherein I have written many things untrue. And forasmuch as my hand offended in writing contrary to my heart, my hand when I come to the fire shall first be burnt.' He further declared that he repented his recantation right sure ; whereupon lord Williams cried, '*Make short, make short.*' Fire being now put to him, " he stretched out his right hand and thrust it into the flames till it was consumed, while he frequently cried out in the midst of his sufferings, ' That unworthy hand ! ' at the same time exhibiting no appearance of pain or disorder. When the fire attacked his body, he seemed to be quite insensible of his tortures ; his mind was occupied wholly upon the hopes of a future reward. After his body was destroyed, his heart was found entire ; an emblem of the constancy with which he suffered."

322. *Extent of the Persecution—Rise of Puritanism.*—The total number of those who suffered death by imprisonment, famine, torture, and fire during the religious persecution in Mary's short reign is reckoned by a most competent contemporary, the great lord Burghley, to be near 400 ; of whom those who were burned alive amounted to 290. To complete the estimate of its direfulness, there must likewise be included the great number of persons who fled to the free cities of Frankfort and Geneva, together with the protestant cantons of Switzerland, where they were received with open arms by Calvin and Beza. In this exile, John Knox learned the rudiments of that ecclesiastical polity which kindled the spirit of religious and civil liberty in Scotland. From Calvin, Beza, and their disciples, the English exiles learned to estimate their approach to religious truth by their remoteness from the Roman church, and afterwards to consider those usages

321. Relate his conduct when led to the stake.

322. How many persons suffered death during this persecution? How many of these were burnt alive? What opinions were imbibed by the exiles?



in the Church of England as almost criminal if they bore any likeness to the ancient ritual common to the Romanists and all other Christian communities, the more particularly when these appeared to be imposed solely by human authority. These opinions were even held and maintained during the persecution. Thus, when the learned and conscientious prebendary of Salisbury, John Foxe the Martyrologist, was required by the Romanist primate Parker to subscribe a declaration approving of the Romish ecclesiastical vestments, he took from his pocket a Greek New Testament, and said, 'To this I will subscribe!' Such was the origin of the religious opinions afterwards called Puritan.

323. *Loss of Calais, 1558.*—The Romanist persecutions were happily arrested by a disaster, then considered a national disgrace, which not only hastened the death of "Bloody Mary," but lessened the facility in future for our unprofitable interference in the affairs of France. "Calais, that had now for above two hundred years been in possession of the English, was attacked, and, by a sudden and unexpected assault being blockaded up on every side, was obliged to capitulate (Jan. 1558); so that, in less than eight days, the duke of Guise recovered a city that the able Edward III. spent eleven months in gaining. This loss filled the whole kingdom with murmurs, and the queen with despair: she was thereafter constantly heard to say, that, when dead, the name of Calais would be found engraved on her heart."

324. *Death and Character of Mary.*—"These complicated evils, a murmuring people, an increasing heresy, a disdainful husband, and an unsuccessful war, made dreadful depredations on Mary's constitution. She began to appear consumptive, and this rendered her mind still more morose and bigoted. The people now therefore began to turn their thoughts to her successor; and the princess Elizabeth came into a greater degree of consideration than before. In her rapidly-declining health every reflection tormented the disconsolate Mary. The consciousness of being detested by her subjects, and the prospect of Elizabeth's succession, whom she hated, preyed upon her mind, and threw her into a lingering fever, of which she

322. What book did the dissentients from popery take as their rule of faith? What were the new religious opinions called?

323. What city belonging to the English was now attacked? and in what year? In how many days did the duke of Guise make himself master of it? Did the queen regret this loss?

324. What injured the constitution of the queen? With what disease was Mary now afflicted? Upon whom did the people turn their thoughts for a successor? What threw Mary into a lingering fever?



died on the 17th of November, 1558, in the sixth year of her unfortunate reign and in the forty-third year of her age." She left no issue, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Mary is a perfect and conspicuous example of the fatal effects of error in rulers; for to error alone the greater part of the misery caused by her must be ascribed. She adhered to her principles; she acted agreeably to conscience; but her principles and her conscience were perverted by false notions of the power of sovereigns and of laws over religious opinions.

325. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). There is reason to believe that the re-establishment of popery on Mary's accession must have been acceptable to a large part, or perhaps the majority of the English people. The reformed doctrine had however been embraced by the energetic and intelligent minority in her brother's reign. The imperial ambassador Noailles bears witness, in many of his dispatches to the emperor Charles V., uncle of queen Mary, to the unwillingness which great numbers of the people displayed to the restoration of popery, and to the queen's unpopularity. As for the higher classes, they partook far less than their inferiors in the religious zeal of that age. In them Henry, Edward, and Mary, found almost an equal compliance with their varying schemes of faith. Still the greater number of the nobility and gentry appear to have preferred the Roman catholic faith. Several peers opposed the bills for reformation under Edward; and others, who had gone along with the current, became active councillors to Mary. The same compromising spirit characterised the clergy; and would have been more general, if a considerable number had not availed themselves of the permission to marry granted in the reign of Edward, which led to their expulsion from their benefices on his sister coming to the throne.

(2). However compliant parliament had been found to re-establish at the bidding of the queen the whole religious polity as it had existed before the innovations of Henry VIII., she found it impossible to obtain a repeal of the statute of supremacy *without the Pope's explicit confirmation of the abbey lands to their new possessors*. Parliament however readily passed an act in 1588, to confirm all grants or sales of the crown lands, which either had been made by the queen, or should be made during the space of seven years thereafter: a measure which could not fail to produce, and indeed was intended to sanction, a very considerable alienation.

(3). Although parliament insisted on the abbey lands being confirmed to their possessors, and permitted the sale of the crown lands which had been held from the earliest times as inalienable, it readily assented to the restoration of all ecclesiastical property still remaining in the hands of the crown. Indeed, the uniform policy of every successive parliament had been to encourage and to confirm the alienation of the state property in order the sooner to bring the sovereign under complete dependance for carrying on the government.

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324. In what year of her age and reign did she die?



## ELIZABETH

Began to reign Nov. 17th, 1558;—died March 24th, 1603.

326. *The Pope declares Elizabeth illegitimate.*—"Nothing could exceed the joy that was diffused among the people upon the accession of Elizabeth, younger daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, who now came to the throne without any opposition." One of her first acts is said to have been an intimation to the Pope that she would offer no violence to the consciences of her subjects, whatever might be their religious creed. To which Paul IV. replied that he could not comprehend the hereditary right of an illegitimate person; that Mary, queen of Scots, daughter of the elder sister of Henry VIII., was the heir to the crown; but if Elizabeth would submit the controversy to him, he would be as indulgent as possible. Soon after this, Mary of Scotland assumed the title of queen of England, and quartered the English with the Scots arms. Elizabeth's ministers thereon advised her to put down a religion which proclaimed her a bastard\* and declared the right of Mary Stuart to the throne. The queen consented: but her principal secretary of state, Sir William Cecil, advised caution in order to secure success. By degrees the intentions of the government were developed: the prisoners for religious opinions were liberated; the exiled reformers permitted to return; and the elevation of the host in the queen's chapel on Christmas-day was forbidden as idolatrous. The Romanist prelates now took alarm, and determined not to officiate at the coronation of a princess who would either object to that part of the oath which would bind her to maintain the established church or take it with an intention to violate it. This procedure caused some embarrassment; but the bishop of Carlisle quitted his colleagues, and consented to crown the queen on condition that she would observe the usual ceremonies. These were conformed to, including the usual oath, and Elizabeth was crowned at Westminster on the 15th of January, 1559.

326. In what year did the reign of Elizabeth commence and terminate? What did she intimate to the Pope? What answer did the Pope give? What of Mary, queen of Scots? What was Elizabeth advised to do? How did the bishops act? Which of them quitted his colleagues, and what did he do?

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\* It is important to bear in mind that Elizabeth at this time was, by the unrepealed statute enacted in June, 1536, a bastard and incapable of inheriting the crown in accordance with the then views of Henry VIII.



327. *Protestantism\* finally established, 1559.*—The conduct of Elizabeth and of her ministers at this time affords a striking illustration that when established ecclesiastical polity and religious belief are opposed to the interest of vigorous rulers, both will be reformed and made subservient to the secular power. Accordingly, after obtaining from her first parliament, which was opened by the queen after a solemn mass, a statute declaring her to be rightly, lineally, and lawfully descended from the blood royal, and pronouncing all sentences and acts of parliament derogatory thereto to be void, “act after act was passed in favour of the Reformation; and in a single session the form of religion was established as we at present have the happiness to enjoy it.”

328. *Mary, queen of Scots—Darnley—Rizzio.*—“A state of permanent felicity is not to be expected here; and Mary, queen of Scots, daughter of James V. by Margaret Tudor, elder sister of Henry VIII., was the first person who excited the fears or the resentment of Elizabeth. In her sixth year, Mary was sent to France and there educated for its future queen. At fourteen years of age, this princess, being possessed of every accomplishment of person and mind, was married to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II. of France, who died in 1560 and left her widow at the age of nineteen. Mary, the widow, still seemed disposed to remain in France; but finding herself exposed to the persecutions of the queen-mother, Catherine de Medicis, who now began to take the lead in France, she returned home to Scotland in 1561, where she found the people strongly impressed with the puritan enthusiasm of the times. A difference of religion between the sovereign and the people is ever productive of bad effects; since it is apt to produce contempt on the one side and jealousy on the other. Mary could not avoid regarding the sour manners of the reformed clergy who now bore sway among the Scots, with a mixture of ridicule and hatred; while they, on the other hand, could not look on the gaieties and levities which she introduced among them with-

327. What was Elizabeth's policy a proof of? What religious service preceded the opening of her first parliament? What was thereafter done?

328. Who first excited Elizabeth's apprehensions? What of queen Mary's early history? When did she return to Scotland? What were her first impressions? How did the reformed clergy regard her levities?

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\* This term includes all who protest against or secede from the authority and faith of the Church of Rome. The first protestants were those who made a public protestation at Spiers, in Germany, against the decision of the emperor Charles V. in 1558.



out abhorrence and resentment. The jealousy thus excited, began every day to grow stronger; the clergy waited only for some impropriety in the queen to fly out into open opposition; and her indiscretion but too soon gave them sufficient opportunity. In 1565, queen Mary married her cousin lord Darnley, grandson of Margaret Tudor by her second husband the earl of Angus. Dazzled by the pleasing exterior of her new lover, Mary had entirely forgotten to look to the accomplishments of his mind. Darnley was but a weak and ignorant man; violent, yet variable in his enterprises; insolent, yet credulous, and easily governed by flatterers. She soon, therefore, began to convert her admiration into disgust; and Darnley, enraged at her increasing coldness, pointed his vengeance against her secretary, David Rizzio, whom he supposed to be the cause of this change in her sentiments and behaviour." The Piedmontese Rizzio had come to Edinburgh in the capacity of a musician in the train of the minister from Savoy, and having been introduced into the palace as a performer in the royal band, soon ingratiated himself with the queen, who appointed him her private secretary on account of his facility in writing French. He promoted Darnley's marriage, and probably contributed to the re-establishment of the Romanists to power, which made him very much disliked by the Presbyterian lords. "These easily persuaded a man of Darnley's jealous and uxorious temper that Rizzio was the person who had estranged the queen's affections from him, and a surmise once conceived became to him a certainty. He soon, therefore, consulted with certain Protestant lords of his party, who conspired with him to murder Rizzio in the queen's presence on his giving them a written instrument to keep them "scathless." On the 9th of March, 1566, Darnley conducted lord Ruthven and other assassins through his private staircase, by the use of his own key, into a small room where the queen was at supper with Rizzio, her natural sister the countess of Argyle, and some other favourites. They then dragged Rizzio into the antechamber and dispatched him with fifty-six wounds, the unhappy queen, who was then in the sixth month of her pregnancy by her contemptible husband, continuing her lamentations while they were perpetrating their horrid crime. On being informed by one of her ladies of Rizzio's fate, Mary at once dried her tears, and said she would weep no more,

328. In what way did they intend to act? What led to their triumph over her? What was the character of Darnley? Relate the cause and circumstances of Rizzio's death. What did Mary say, knowing that Rizzio was dead? Who encouraged the murder of Rizzio?



for she would now think of revenge." The lords, who thus outraged their sovereign, were the subsidised partisans of queen Elizabeth, whose hatred to Mary was increased from the knowledge that she was about to become a mother. To insure the completion of the murder, her partisan lord Morton, then chancellor of the kingdom, whose duty it was to enforce the laws of the realm, kept the doors of the palace during its perpetration with 160 armed men!

329. *Birth of Prince James—Murder of Darnley, 1566.*—As the time of Mary's accouchement drew near, it was looked for with great anxiety by all parties; by many it was expected, considering her late sufferings, that the event might be fatal to both mother and child: but she was happily delivered of a prince on the 19th of June, which produced no real reconciliation between his parents. "Mary, however, concealed her resentment, and so far imposed upon her husband Darnley, that he soon after put himself under her protection and attended her to Holyrood Palace, from which she induced him to retire for quietness in his then delicate health to a lone house, called the Kirk of Field, situated where now stands the University of Edinburgh. Mary there gave him marks of kindness and attachment; she conversed cordially with him, and she lay some nights in a room under him. On her visit of the 9th of February she told him she would pass that night in the palace, because the marriage of one of her servants was to be there celebrated in her presence. But dreadful consequences speedily ensued on her departure about two o'clock in the morning; the whole inhabitants of the city were much alarmed at hearing a great noise; the house in which Darnley lay was blown up with gunpowder; his dead body was found in a neighbouring field, but without any marks of violence. No doubt could be entertained but that Darnley had been murdered, and the general suspicion fell on the earl of Bothwell, while the complicity of Mary was not doubted."

330. *Mary marries Bothwell—Her Imprisonments and Execution, 1567-87.*—Mary's reputation was further damaged by her allowing herself to be seized by Bothwell at the head of 1000 horse on the following 26th of April, 1567, "patiently suffering herself to be led by her lover" to the castle of Dunbar, where they were privately married on the 15th of May, about three

329. When did Mary give birth to prince James? What was expected by many persons? How did the queen afterwards treat Darnley? How and where was he murdered? Who were suspected to have been privy to it?

330. In what way was Mary's reputation further damaged?



months after the murder of Darnley, and within nine days of Bothwell's divorce from his wife. It is little extenuation to say that Mary had been urged to marry Bothwell by twenty-four of her chief nobility. The dominion of Bothwell lasted only a month, and involved in its fall the throne of his wife, thenceforward to become the most unfortunate of women. On the pretext of the queen's guilt of murder and adultery, she was confined in the castle of Lochleven, and there compelled to resign her crown on the 25th of July. Her bastard brother, the earl of Moray, was appointed to govern the kingdom as regent during the minority of her infant son (then one year old) who was now proclaimed king by the title of James VI. On the 2nd of next May, Mary escaped from her confinement, and, at the head of an army, gave battle to the rebels at Langside; but, being defeated, she fled for safety to the north of England (1568). Elizabeth, who had secretly taken part in all the machinations of her enemies, had now gained a great object of her ambition: she had in her hands a hated rival, and, by her support of Moray and his party, the absolute command of the kingdom of Scotland. Yet policy required some show of friendship and humanity to the queen of Scots, who claimed as a suppliant her protection and aid. She professed her desire to do her justice, but under one pretence or another detained her in close imprisonment. The ungenerous policy of Elizabeth was condemned by her own subjects. The duke of Norfolk, the first of her nobility, and, though a protestant, favoured by the catholic party in England, secretly projected to marry the queen of Scots; and the discovery of these views giving alarm to Elizabeth, brought that ill-fated nobleman to the block on the 8th of June, 1572, and hastened the doom of the unfortunate Mary. Worn out with the miseries of her confinement, she privately solicited the aid of foreign princes for her deliverance. Her cause was espoused by all the catholics of England; and some of the most intemperate of these had formed a plot to deliver her from captivity, and to place her on the throne by the murder of Elizabeth. This dangerous conspiracy was discovered, and its authors deservedly suffered death. The schemes of Mary for her own deliverance, were held presumptive of her acquiescence in the whole of the plot. Though

330. What were the consequences of her indiscretion? Who urged Mary to marry Bothwell? What did they next do? Where was she confined? On escaping, what did she do? What followed? Where did she fly to? How was she treated by Elizabeth? Who secretly projected a marriage with Mary? What was his fate? Who plotted to aid Mary? What were the consequences?



an independent sovereign, she was brought to trial before a foreign tribunal, which had already decreed her fate; and being condemned to suffer death, she was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle on the 8th of February, 1587, in the forty-fifth year of her age and nineteenth of her captivity in England.

331. *War with Spain—Philip's Preparations, 1587.*—The execution of the queen of Scots created a strong feeling of hostility against Elizabeth among all the Roman catholic princes, and particularly in Philip II. of Spain, who was then the ablest and most powerful monarch of the age. Elizabeth had also carried on against him a very harassing privateering kind of warfare both by sea and land, which greatly annoyed the Spaniards in their commerce with the New World. From these circumstances, together with the desire to subvert the protestant religion, he determined to attempt the invasion of England. His navy was more numerous than that possessed by any other European power; he had harbours opposite to those of this country; the gold of the New World supplied him with money, and his land forces surpassed all contemporaries in brave and experienced officers. His naval preparations for this great expedition were carried on in the ports of Naples, Sicily, Spain, and Portugal, and at these places ships of war were built of larger dimensions than any which had been constructed before; and great quantities of naval stores and provisions were collected at Cadiz and Lisbon, together with numerous transports. "The marquis of Santa Cruz, a sea officer of great reputation and experience, was destined to command the fleet, which consisted of 130 vessels, of a greater size than any that had been hitherto seen in Europe. The duke of Parma was to conduct the land forces, 20,000 of whom were on board the fleet, and 34,000 more were assembled in the Netherlands, ready to be transported into England."

332. *Naval Successes of Drake, 1587.*—"Nothing could exceed the terror and consternation which all ranks of people felt in England, upon news of this terrible armada being prepared to invade them." It was wisely resolved to endeavour to prevent the danger rather than to wait for it; and accordingly, in April, 1587, Elizabeth sent a fleet of about thirty sail to Cadiz, under the command of the daring Sir Francis

331. Who now formed a plan for the destruction of England? What circumstances inflamed his resentment against the English? Whom did Philip appoint to command the fleet, and the land forces? Of what number did each consist?

332. Did Philip's warlike preparations excite further alarm in England?



Drake,\* who entered the port and destroyed about thirty vessels, some of which were large galleys, laden with ammunition and provisions. From thence he sailed to Cape St. Vincent, where he surprised some forts, and destroyed about one hundred other vessels along the coast; and captured the San Philippe, a Portuguese carrick from India, so richly laden as to enable him to defray the expenses of the expedition, and liberally to reward the bravery of his companions. This spirited and successful expedition, reduced Philip to the necessity of deferring his intended invasion until the next year, which gave Elizabeth further time to complete her preparations for defence.

333. *Preparations to oppose Philip.*—In the fleet that was forthwith collected there was one ship (the Triumph) of 1100 tons, one of 1000, two of 800, three of 600, six of 500, five of 400, six of 300, seven of 250, twenty of 200, and all the others were smaller. There were only thirty-four ships of the royal navy, together of 11,850 tons, and 6,279 men; thirty-five were fitted out by public bodies or by volunteers, and the others were hired. As compared with the Armada, the English fleet outnumbered it by about sixty, but in tonnage it only amounted to one-half. In the Armada there were only three ships that exceeded in size the Triumph, but there were no fewer than forty-five between 600 and 1000 tons burden. The fleet was divided into two squadrons: the principal squadron, under Howard, Drake, and Hawkins, was stationed at Plymouth; and the smaller squadron of 23 coasters, under the command of lord Henry Seymour, together with the Dutch fleet of about 35 sail, under count Justin of Nassau, cruised on the coast of Flanders to prevent the

332. What was Drake sent to do? Did he succeed? To what extent?

333. Of what tonnage were the larger ships of the English fleet? How was it divided? Who commanded the fleet, and who served under him? For what purpose did a squadron lie off Dunkirk, and by whom was it commanded?

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\* He was the son of Edmund Drake, a sailor, and was born in an humble cottage on the banks of the Tavy near Tavistock, in Devonshire, in 1545. He was the eldest of twelve sons, and was sent at an early age to serve as a sailor boy in a coasting vessel. By good conduct, diligence, and enterprise in privateering against the Spaniards, he acquired a considerable fortune, and returned with a great reputation to settle near the place of his birth. No family of distinction, or even of respectability, could lay claim to him. He rose from obscurity, and became one of the most distinguished men in an age which was particularly abundant in great names, introducing into naval warfare a bravery and daring which had never been equalled, his successes obtaining for him the title of the English hero. His fame was handed down from generation to generation with all the fondness of national pride. He has also the high honour of being the first commander who circumnavigated the globe.



prince of Parma from attempting to transport the army which was kept in readiness to make a descent upon England. The amount of the land defence collected by Elizabeth is variously stated; but every account is agreed that she succeeded in rousing the national spirit throughout the whole kingdom. The lord-lieutenants of counties were required to muster the militia in each county, from whose returns it appears there were about 130,000 men enrolled for the defence of the kingdom, exclusive of the 10,000 men maintained by the city of London. In addition, the queen had three armies: the first consisted of about 20,000 men, cantoned along the south coast; another, of 22,000 foot and 2000 horse, encamped at Tilbury, under the command of the earl of Leicester, for the defence of London; and the third, amounting to 30,000 or 40,000 chosen men, especially intended for the defence of the queen's person, and to march wherever the enemy might appear, was commanded by her kinsman, lord Hunsdon, a brave, active, and resolute nobleman. "This was the preparation made by the English; while all the protestant powers of Europe regarded this enterprise as the critical event which was to decide for ever the fate of their religion."

334. *The Spanish Armada, its Strength.*—When the preparations of Philip were completed, he was so confident of success, that instead of concealing the strength of the expedition, he caused a very accurate account of it to be published in Latin, and various other languages, except English. According to this account, there were 130 vessels, of four kinds: first, the ordinary ships of war, formed after the *chiule* or keel of the ancient northern nations; second, the galley, which employed oars, and carried cannon on the prow and the stern; third, the galleasse, one-third larger and broader than the galley; fourth, the galleon, being the ordinary ships of war extended in length, with cannon on each flank, and powerful batteries on the prow and stern. The tonnage amounted to 57,860, and there were 2630 pieces of cannon; the united crews amounted to 8766; and on board were 21,855 soldiers, besides 2088 galley slaves. In addition, the prince of Parma had prepared in the Netherlands a flotilla of flat-bottomed boats, fitted to convey across the Channel an army of 30,000 men; and the duke of Guise was on the coast of Normandy at the head of 12,000 veterans, whom he meant to land on

333. How was this preparation regarded by the protestant powers of Europe?

334. Of how many ships did the Spanish fleet consist? How were they classed? What was the total tonnage?



the western coast of England. This great force, destined for the conquest of England, and for the destruction of the Protestant religion, received the special benediction of Pope Sixtus V., who, along with it, sent to Philip a consecrated banner, and at the same time designated the united force as 'The Invincible Armada.'

335. *The Armada in the Channel, July, 1588.*—It was intended that the armada should have left Lisbon in the beginning of May, 1588, but the marquess de Santa Cruz, who had been appointed admiral, at the moment fixed for the departure, was seized of a fever, of which he died in a few days; and by a singular fatality, the duke de Paliano, the vice-admiral, died likewise at the same time. Santa Cruz was reckoned the first naval officer in Spain, and Philip found it extremely difficult to supply his place. "The command of the expedition was at last given to the duke de Medina Sidonia, a person utterly inexperienced in sea affairs; and this, in some measure, served to frustrate the design. But some other accidents also contributed to its failure. The armada left the port of Lisbon on the 29th of May, 1588, and arrived after three weeks' sail within a few leagues of the Scilly island, when it met with a violent tempest, which sunk some of the smallest of their shipping, and obliged the fleet to put back into harbour. After refitting, they again put to sea, and were descried, on the 19th of July, off the Lizard Point, where they took a fisherman, who gave them intelligence that the English fleet, hearing of the dispersion of the armada in a storm, was retired back into Plymouth harbour, and most of the mariners discharged. From this false intelligence, the Spanish admiral, instead of going directly to the coast of Flanders, to take in the troops stationed there, as he had been instructed, resolved to sail to Plymouth and destroy the shipping laid up in that harbour. But lord Howard, the English admiral, was very well prepared to receive them; he was just got out of port when he saw the Spanish armada coming full sail towards him, disposed in the form of a half moon, and stretching seven miles from one extremity to the other. However, the English admiral, seconded by Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, attacked the armada at a distance, pouring in their broadsides with admirable dexterity. They did not choose to engage

334. By what name in history is this armament called?

335. What deaths happened when the Spanish armada was about to sail? Who succeeded to the command on the death of Admiral Santa Cruz? By what information was the Spanish admiral deceived? How did the English admirals at first act?



the enemy more closely because they were greatly inferior in the number of ships, guns, and weight of metal; nor could they pretend to board such lofty ships without manifest disadvantage. However, two Spanish galleons were disabled and taken. As the armada advanced up the Channel, the English still followed, and infested their rear."

336. *Defeat of the Armada.*—"The English fleet having continually increased from different ports, the admirals soon found themselves in a capacity to attack the Spanish fleet more nearly; and accordingly fell upon them while they were as yet taking shelter in the port of Calais. To increase their confusion, Howard filled eight of his smaller ships with combustible materials, and sent them one after the other into the midst of the enemy. The Spaniards, taking them for what they seemed to be, immediately took flight in great disorder; while the English, profiting by their panic, took or destroyed about twelve of the enemy. They then followed the duke de Medina Sidonia to the coast of Zealand, where he held a council of war, in which it was resolved, that, as their ammunition began to fail, as their ships had received great damage, and as the duke of Parma had refused to venture his army under their protection, they should return to Spain by sailing round the Orkneys, as the winds were contrary to a passage directly back. Accordingly, they proceeded northward, and were followed by the English fleet as far as Flamborough Head, where they were terribly shattered by a storm. Seventeen of the ships, having five thousand men on board, were afterwards cast away on the western isles, and the coast of Ireland. Of the whole armada, three-and-fifty ships only returned to Spain, in a miserable condition; and the seamen, as well as soldiers, who remained, only served, by their accounts, to intimidate their countrymen from attempting to renew so dangerous an expedition." Such, in the space of a single month, was the fate of the Invincible Armada, which the Spaniards had fondly hoped the English fleets would never venture to oppose. It is recorded of the king of Spain, that, when he heard of the extent of the calamity, 'he received it as a dispensation of Providence, and gave, and commanded to be given throughout Spain, thanks to God and the saints that it was no greater.' England having thus been delivered from the threatened danger, Elizabeth ordered a solemn thanksgiving to be celebrated at St. Paul's, where eleven of the Spanish ensigns were hung upon the lower battlements—many of the trophies were also deposited in the

336. Describe the battle off Calais, and the fate of the armada.



Tower, where they are still to be seen; and the whole country resounded with rejoicing.

337. *Capture of Cadiz, 1596.*—In 1596, a report was circulated that the king of Spain had again entered into formidable preparations for the invasion of England. It was, therefore, determined to send out a fleet of one hundred and fifty sail, and an army, to destroy the Spanish fleet in the port of Cadiz, as had been done before; and the command was jointly conferred upon lord Howard and the earl of Essex. This fleet was also joined by a Dutch squadron of twenty-four sail, under the command of admiral Van Duvenvoord. On the 1st of June, 1596, the united fleet sailed from Plymouth, and on the 12th arrived at Cadiz; on the following morning they entered the harbour, and commenced the attack upon the Spanish ships, which was carried on with great fury on both sides. The Spanish admiral's ship and several others were blown up with all their crews on board, while the few vessels which were not either sunk or burned were run on shore. This daring and successful enterprise was followed up by the capture of Cadiz by 800 men under the command of the earl of Essex, and 620,000 ducats were accepted as a ransom for the lives of the Spaniards, when a proclamation was issued to restrain the perpetration of any violence against them. Lord Howard then dispatched Sir Walter Raleigh with several of the light frigates to Puerto Reale, for the purpose of destroying the merchantmen which had retreated thither. To preserve these the Spaniards offered a composition of 2,500,000 ducats; but this offer was refused by lord Howard, who answered that "*he came to burn, and not to ransom.*" Alarmed at the determination of the enemy, and perceiving that the fleet must be taken, the duke de Medina Sidonia gave orders for it to be burned, the remains of which, together with 20,000,000 ducats, were buried in the ocean.

338. *Elizabeth's partiality for Essex—His Discontent, 1599.*—"The young earl of Essex, who so gallantly distinguished himself in the capture of Cadiz, was fitted not only for the foremost ranks in war by his valour, but to conduct the intrigues of a court by his eloquence and address. In all the masques which were then performed, the earl and Elizabeth were generally coupled as partners; and although she was almost sixty, and he not half so old, yet her vanity overlooked

337. Why was an expedition sent to Cadiz? Describe what was there done. Did the fleet then return home? What did the Spanish admiral thereon do?

338. What young nobleman distinguished himself in the capture of Cadiz? What qualities did he possess?



the disparity; the world told her that she was young, and she herself was willing to think so. This young earl's interest in the queen's affections, as may naturally be supposed, promoted his interests in the State; and he conducted all things at his discretion. But young and inexperienced as he was, he at length began to fancy that the popularity he possessed, and the flatteries he received, were given to his merits and not to his favour. In a debate before the queen, between him and Burleigh, about the choice of a governor for Ireland, he was so heated in the argument, that he entirely forgot both the rules and duties of civility. He turned his back on the queen in a contemptuous manner, which so provoked her resentment, that she instantly gave him a box on the ear. Instead of recollecting himself, and making the submissions due to her sex and station, he clapped his hand to his sword, and swore he would not bear such usage even from her father. This offence, though very great, was overlooked by the queen; her partiality was so prevalent, that she reinstated him in her former favour, and her kindness seemed to have acquired new force from that short interruption of anger and resentment. The death also of his rival, lord Burleigh, which happened shortly after, seemed to confirm his power."

339. *Essex Lord Deputy of Ireland—His Disgrace.*—"At that time the earl of Tyrone headed the rebellious natives of Ireland; who, not yet thoroughly brought into subjection to the English, took every opportunity to make incursions upon the more civilised inhabitants, and slew all they were able to overpower. To subdue these was an employment that Essex thought worthy of his ambition; nor were his enemies displeased at thus removing him from court, where he obstructed all their private aims of preferment. They accordingly urged his being appointed viceroy of Ireland (1599). But this command ended in his ruin. He went over with 18,000 men, and instead of attacking the enemy in their grand retreat in Ulster, he lost his opportunity against a people that submitted at his approach, but took up arms again when he retired. This issue of an enterprise, from which much was expected, did not fail to provoke the queen most sensibly; and her anger was still more heightened by the peevish and impatient letters which he daily wrote to her and the council. But her resentment against him was still more justly let loose, when she found, that, leaving the place of his appoint-

338. Whose affections did Essex gain? How did he provoke the resentment of the queen? Was his offence forgiven?

339. What favoured Essex's appointment as Viceroy? What did it lead to? How did he afterwards conduct himself?



ment, and without any permission demanded or obtained, he had returned from Ireland to make his complaints to herself in person (Sept., 1559). Though Elizabeth was justly offended, yet Essex soon won upon her temper to pardon him. He was ordered to continue a prisoner in his own house till the queen's further pleasure should be known; and it is probable that the discretion of a few months might have reinstated him in all his former employments; but the impetuosity of his character would not suffer him to wait for a slow redress of what he considered as wrongs: and the queen's refusing his request to continue him in the possession of a lucrative monopoly of sweet wines, which he had long enjoyed, spurred him on to the most violent and guilty measures. Having long built with fond credulity on his great popularity, he began to hope, from the assistance of the giddy multitude, that revenge upon his enemies in the council, which he supposed was denied him from the throne."

340. *Insurrection of Essex—His Execution, 1601.*—"The earl's greatest dependence was upon the professions of the citizens of London, whose schemes of religion and government he appeared entirely to approve; and while Essex gratified the puritans, by railing at the government of the church, he pleased the envious, by exposing the faults of those in power. Among other criminal projects, the result of blind rage and despair, he and some of his creatures resolved to possess themselves of the palace, and to induce the queen to remove his and her enemies, to assemble a new parliament, and to correct the defects of the present administration. While this project was under deliberation Essex received a private note, by which he was warned to provide for his own safety. He now saw that all was to be hazarded. He therefore determined alone to leave his house, and to sally forth to make an insurrection in the city. But he had made a very wrong estimate in expecting that popularity alone would aid him in time of danger; he issued out with about two hundred followers, armed only with swords; and, in his passage to the city, was joined by the earl of Bedford and lord Cromwell. As he passed through the streets, he cried aloud, 'For the queen! for the queen! A plot is laid for my life!' hoping to engage the populace to rise; but they had received orders from the mayor to keep within their houses; so that he was

340. On whom did Essex place his greatest dependence? How was he to get into the presence of the queen? What was he to intreat her to do? What prevented the execution of this scheme? Who attended him when he issued out from his house with the view of raising the inhabitants of London in his favour? By what noblemen was he joined?



not joined by a single person. In this manner, attended by a few followers, he made towards the river; and, taking a boat, arrived once more at Essex House, where he began to make preparations for his defence. But his case was too desperate for any remedy from valour; wherefore, after demanding in vain for conditions from his besiegers, he surrendered at discretion, requesting only civil treatment and a fair and impartial hearing. He and Southampton were immediately carried to the archbishop's palace at Lambeth, from whence they were the next day conveyed to the Tower, and tried by the peers on the 19th of February following. Little could be urged in their defence; their guilt was too flagrant; and, though it deserved pity, it could not meet an acquittal. Essex, after condemnation, was visited by that religious horror which seemed to attend him in all his disgraces. He was terrified almost to despair by the ghostly remonstrances of his own chaplain; he was reconciled to his enemies, and made a full confession of his conspiracy. It is alleged, upon this occasion, that he had strong hopes of pardon from the irresolution which the queen seemed to discover before she signed the warrant for his execution. She had given him formerly a ring, which she desired him to send her in any emergency of this nature, and that it should procure his safety and protection. This ring was actually sent by him to the countess of Nottingham, who, being a concealed enemy to the unfortunate earl, never delivered it; while Elizabeth was secretly fired at his obstinacy in making no application for mercy or forgiveness.\* The fact is, she appeared herself as much an object of pity as the unfortunate nobleman she was induced to condemn. She signed the warrant for his execution; she countermanded it; she again resolved on his death, and again felt a new return of tenderness. At last she gave her consent to his execution," which was carried into effect in the court within the Tower, on the 25th of February, 1601.

341. *Death and Character of Elizabeth, 1603.*—"With the death of her favourite Essex, all Elizabeth's pleasure seemed to expire; she afterwards went through the business of the

340. Did the populace rise? On what terms was he at last obliged to surrender? With whom was he tried? What effect had the sentence of condemnation on his mind? What pledge of security had he formerly received from the queen? To whom did he entrust it? Did the countess of Nottingham act honourably to Essex? What effect on the temper of Elizabeth had this want of application for mercy? Relate her conduct with respect to the warrant for Essex's execution.

341. What effect on the queen had the death of Essex?

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\* This story of the ring appears to be a fiction, as it is unsupported by any authentic document.



State merely from habit, but her satisfactions were no more. Her distress was more than sufficient to destroy the remains of her constitution; and her end was now visibly seen to approach. Her voice soon after left her; she fell into a lethargic slumber, which continued some hours, and she expired gently without a groan on the 25th of March, 1603, in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign. Her character differed with her circumstances; in the beginning she was moderate and humble; towards the end of her reign, haughty and severe." She possessed great natural abilities, and cultivated them so assiduously in her youth, that she was mistress of five languages. She had acquired a perfect knowledge of music; but dancing was the principal amusement at her court, and she retained her passion for it to the last. Though she was possessed of excellent sense, yet she never had the discernment to discover that she wanted beauty; and to flatter her charms at the age of sixty-five was the surest road to her favour and esteem. Her love for finery in dresses and jewellery was excessive. The bishop of London once endeavoured in a sermon to correct her of this vanity; but she gave him to understand, that if he touched again on that subject, she would send *him* quickly to heaven. "But whatever were her personal defects, as a queen she is to be ever remembered by the English with gratitude. It is true, indeed, that she carried her prerogative in parliament to its highest pitch; so that it was tacitly allowed, in that assembly, that she was above all laws, and could make and unmake them at her pleasure; yet still she was so wise and good as seldom to exert that power which she claimed, and to enforce few acts of her prerogative, which were not for the benefit of her people. It is true, in like manner, that the English, during her reign, were put in possession of no new or splendid acquisitions; but commerce was daily growing up among them, and the people began to find that the theatre of their truest conquests was to be on the bosom of the ocean. The successful voyages of the Spaniards and Portuguese began to excite their emulation, and they planned several expeditions for discovering a shorter passage to the East Indies. The famous Sir Walter Raleigh, without any assistance from government, colonized part of New England, while internal commerce was making equal improvements; and many Flem-

341. In what year of her age and reign did Elizabeth die? Was her character uniform during her reign? What were her attainments? What proof of vanity did she give in her old age? What was she fond of? Who attempted to cure her of such follies? How were his animadversions received? Did Elizabeth add more to the greatness of the nation by extent of territory, or by the advantages of commerce?



ings, persecuted in their native country, found, together with their arts and industry, an easy asylum in England. Thus the whole island seemed as if roused from her long habits of barbarity; arts, commerce, and legislation, began to acquire new strength every day; and such was the state of learning at that time, that some fix that period as the *Augustan* age of England. Sir Walter Raleigh and Hooker are considered as among the first improvers of our language. Spencer and Shakspeare are too well known as poets to be praised here; but of all mankind, Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam, who flourished in this reign, deserves, as a philosopher, the highest applause; his style is copious and correct, and his wit is only surpassed by his learning and penetration. If we look through history, and consider the rise of kingdoms, we shall scarce find an instance of a people becoming, in so short a time, wise, powerful, and happy. Liberty, it is true, still continued to fluctuate; Elizabeth knew her own power, and stretched it to the very verge of despotism; but now that commerce was introduced, liberty soon after followed; for there never was a nation that was perfectly commercial, that submitted long to slavery."

342. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). The Reformation of religious belief was neither intended by Henry VIII., nor was Elizabeth naturally inclined to favour it. It became to both a political necessity, and each sought to restrain it within the limits that would sustain their policy. Hence the Church of England is said to be founded not on the New Testament alone, but on a political compromise between it and the teachings of the See of Rome.

(2). But the momentous inquiries that were raised during the then agitation throughout Europe could not be settled by a compromise between truth and error. The earnest and conscientious men who returned from the persecution of Mary, during which they had communed with the learned and no less conscientious reformers in Switzerland and Germany, considered the English ecclesiastical compromise "as a scheme for serving two masters, as an attempt to unite the worship of the Lord with the worship of Baal. . . . Violence naturally engenders violence. The spirit of Protestantism was therefore far fiercer and more intolerant after the cruelties of Mary than before them. The exiles on their return considered the reform which had been effected under king Edward far less extensive than the interests of true religion required. But it was in vain that they attempted to obtain any concession from Elizabeth. Indeed her system, wherever it differed from her brother's, seemed to them to differ for the worse. They were little disposed to submit, in matters of faith, to any human authority. They had recently, in reliance on their own interpretation of Scripture, risen up against a church strong in immemorial antiquity and catholic consent. . . . It was not, therefore, to be expected that they would immediately transfer to an upstart authority the homage which they had withdrawn from the Vatican; that they would submit their private judgment to the authority of a church founded on private judgment alone; that they would be afraid to dissent from teachers who themselves dissented from what had lately been the universal faith of



western Christendom. . . . Since these men could not be convinced, it was determined that they should be persecuted."—*Macaulay*.

(3). In spite of warnings and penalties, the Puritans now employed the forbidden power of the press to disseminate their opinions. An inhuman statute enacted in 1581, with some colour of justification against Roman catholics who denied the legitimacy of the queen's birth and title, was now directed against the puritans (1593). Several of them, after a course of criminal procedure, an exact counterpart of the inquisition, were condemned and executed. An ecclesiastical commission enforced conformity by deprivations, fines, and imprisonments. These severities only tended to increase the number. On these violent proceedings being complained of in the House of Commons, the self-willed Elizabeth thereon sent them a bill "for keeping her majesty's subjects in their due obedience." This bill gave a new and keener edge to the statutes of conformity already in force; it provided that any person above the age of sixteen, who refused, during the space of one month, to attend the established public worship, should be imprisoned; that such persons, so condemned, and persisting in the offence during three months, should abjure the realm; and in case of refusal, or return from banishment, should be punished with death. This outrageous demand, feebly resisted in the House of Commons, was converted into a statute. Persecution found the puritans a sect: it now made them a faction. To their hatred of the church was now added hatred of the crown. The two sentiments were intermingled, and each embittered the other. Many of the arguments employed by them to prove that spiritual power was best lodged in a synod (of laics and of ecclesiastics) seemed to tend to the conclusion that temporal power was best lodged in a parliament. The puritans thereafter determined to make the arena of the House of Commons the battle-field whereon to conquer religious liberty and to bridle the royal authority. Many of the most energetic and prudent of the faction were returned by their co-religionists, chiefly the manufacturing classes in the towns, and the small landholders in the country. Such was the origin of the puritan faction in the House of Commons, which quickly made its power felt, and afterwards shook the British dominions to their deepest foundations.

(4). It has been occasionally brought under consideration that, by the fundamental constitution of England, there were two principal sources of public revenue: 1. The annual income arising from estates inalienably vested in the king as the head of the State, and from others that came into his hands left to his discretionary disposition; 2. The emoluments arising from all the land of the kingdom; commonly called the feudal tenures (§ 174). From the Conquest downwards these revenues, when strictly collected, had always proved sufficient to uphold the king's state, and even to carry on considerable wars, when slightly supplemented by parliamentary taxation. During the reign of Edward VI. the state and church property had been so freely embezzled by his ministers, that his sister Mary required to sell many crown estates to obtain money to carry on her government. In her six years' reign, Mary only obtained two parliamentary grants, which together produced about £239,000. The House of Commons had for some time discovered that the most effective way to lessen the power of the crown and to increase its own, was by forcing the sovereign to alienate the ancient sources of revenue and to supplement the revenue on pressing occasions with definite sums to be raised by taxation, generally on some concession being made by the sovereign. This procedure was



most irritating to queen Elizabeth, whose jealousy of interference with her prerogatives was excessive. Accordingly, rather than have any one of them called in question by parliament, she adopted the most rigid economy in every department of State. But her parsimony and watchfulness still constantly left her without money to defray the expense of the various enterprises she undertook to maintain her policy. Elizabeth therefore resorted to various extortions, to further appropriations of church property, and to extensive sales of crown estates, which sales were as usual readily confirmed by parliament. Until these means failed, Elizabeth never applied for parliamentary aid. During her forty-five years' reign she only obtained eight parliamentary grants, which together produced about £2,792,000, or less than £65,000 a year, on the average, to be raised by taxation! The particulars of these grants were, 19 subsidies from the laity and 18 from the clergy, and 38 tenths and fifteenths.

(5). 1. A tenth and fifteenth were originally those parts of movable property. This special tax was first granted to Henry II. when he proposed to engage in the Crusade against Saladin; and it thereafter became a usual mode of supplementing the revenue. In 1334 (8 E. 3), every parish was surveyed and valued in order to obtain the full return of this tax, which thereon produced £29,000. No new valuation was thereafter made, so that a tenth and a fifteenth became an assessment of £29,000, until that mode of raising revenue was discontinued. 2. A subsidy from the temporality or laity was an aid or tax on rent and personal estate first assessed in the reign of Edward I. at the rate of 4s. in the pound on the *real* annual rent of land and 2s. 8d. in the pound on the value of movable property, as cattle, sheep, wood, grain, &c. It then produced £70,000; while the corresponding assessment on the clergy yielded £20,000. As in the case of the tenths and fifteenths, so in that of the subsidies, no new valuation was made, so that the lay subsidy was thereafter £70,000, and the clerical £20,000.

(6). There is no fact in English history more important to a right understanding of it than that parliament ever acted upon the principle of obstructing and preventing the crown from collecting the *real* revenue due to it from the landholders collectively, which was as much its constitutional and legal right as the rents received by them from their tenants. Parliament also ever encouraged the unconstitutional procedure of alienating the crown lands whereby the revenue might be prospectively impoverished. To these two causes of administrative embarrassment, a third arose in the reign of Elizabeth, which brought the government before her death into a state of utter feebleness—that was the great decrease in the purchasing power or exchangeable value of gold and silver, consequent on the enormous importation of these metals from South America. By the end of the reign of Elizabeth a pound sterling could only have purchased about *one-fifth* of the ordinary commodities of life that the same would have done until the end of the reign of Henry VII. Consequently, as most of the feudal rents and aids continued to be paid and collected in the ancient money tale, the revenue became inadequate for the purposes of government.

(7). Then, as if financial embarrassment was not alone sufficient to overthrow governments, Elizabeth added to these the hostility of the energetic and intellectual of the commonalty by her contempt of the rights of conscience in religious belief.

(8). By keeping the above views in mind, students of English history will have no difficulty in comprehending subsequent events.



## JAMES I.

Began to reign March 24th, 1603 ;—died March 27th, 1625.

343. *James's Pedigree\* and Coronation.*—On the death of Elizabeth, the crown of England passed from the house of Tudor, in which it had remained since the accession of Henry VII., to that of Stuart. Her successor James VI. of Scotland and I. of England was the only child of the unfortunate Mary, queen of Scots, and great grandson of Margaret, elder daughter of Henry VII. James, as the direct heir to the throne of England, was proclaimed at Whitehall and Cheapside on the morrow of Elizabeth's death. The arrangement of the succession,† a most meritorious act, was supposed to have been secretly brought about by the earl of Nottingham and secretary Robert Cecil. James however had with him the opinion of the nation in favour of his right. By placing the whole island under one sovereign, an important step was made towards completing the insular strength and safety of the kingdom. James set out from Edinburgh on the 6th of April, crossed the border next day, rested at the houses of persons of rank on his way, and arrived at Theobald's in Hertfordshire, the residence of secretary Cecil, on the 3rd of May. He was crowned, together with his queen, at Westminster on the following 17th of July, 1603.

344. *Puritans and Catholics exasperated—Gunpowder Plot.*—“Although James I. united in his person every claim that either descent, bequest, or parliamentary sanction could confer, a conspiracy was set on foot, in the very beginning of his

343. When did James's reign commence and terminate? Of whom was he the son and grandson? By what right did he succeed to the throne? When and where was he crowned?

344. What was set on foot in the very beginning of his reign?

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\* The descent of the house of Stewart is from the great Anglo-Norman family of Fitz-Alan of England. In the reign of David I., the contemporary of Henry I., Walter Fitz-Alan held the high office of Steward or Seneschal—the dispenser of Justice in the king's household. Walter, the sixth high-steward, was selected for his chivalrous bravery as the husband of Mary Bruce, only daughter of the Liberator of Scotland; and to their only child, the seventh high-steward, the crown of Scotland descended, on the extinction of the Bruce's male line in his only son David II. in 1371.

† As in the case of Mary and Elizabeth, James succeeded to the crown although expressly excluded by statutes then in force, which vested the legal right to the throne in lord Seymour, eldest son of the earl of Hereford, by lady Katherine Grey (sister of lady Jane Grey), as heir of Mary, duchess of Suffolk, younger sister of Henry VIII. James's hereditary pretensions were not acknowledged and ratified by parliament until March, 1604 (1 J. I., c. 1).



reign, the particulars of which are but obscurely related. It is said to have been begun by lord Grey, lord Cobham, and Sir Walter Raleigh, who were all condemned to die, but had their sentence mitigated by the king (1603). Cobham and Grey were pardoned, after they had laid their heads on the block. Raleigh was reprieved, but remained in confinement many years afterwards, and at last suffered for this offence (Oct. 1618), which was never proved. James was so wanting in discretion that he outraged the feelings of the Puritans, whose religious opinions were precisely similar to those then established as the national religion of Scotland, in a conference with them at Hampton Court; and provoked them still more by countenancing the enforcement of conformity (§ 342 (3)). Then to protect himself from the odium of secretly favouring the church of Rome, which in his first speech to parliament he styled as the mother church defiled with some infirmities, he enforced with more rigour the laws of Elizabeth against Jesuits, seminary priests, and recusants. This severity to the Romanists led to a project which had for its object his murder and "the re-establishment of popery, which, were it not a fact known to all the world, could scarcely be credited by posterity. This was the Gunpowder Plot, than which a more horrid or terrible scheme never entered into the human heart to conceive. The scheme was first broached by Robert Catesby, a relapsed papist of good parts and ancient family, who conceived that a train of gunpowder might be so placed under the parliament-house, as to blow up the king and all the members at once. How horrid soever the contrivance might appear, yet every member seemed faithful and secret in the league; and about two months before the sitting of parliament, Thomas Percy, of the family of Northumberland, hired a house adjoining to that in which the parliament was to assemble. Their first intention was to bore a way under the parliament house from that which they occupied, and they set themselves laboriously to the task; but when they had pierced the wall, which was three yards in thickness, on approaching the other side, they were surprised to find that the house was vaulted underneath, and that a magazine of coals was usually deposited there. From their

344. By whom was it said to have been begun? To what was their sentence mitigated? When were Cobham and Grey pardoned? What was the fate of Raleigh? Did the peaceful disposition of James I. effect a reconciliation among religious parties? How were the papists disappointed in his succession? Into what horrible plot did they enter? By whom was it first suggested? Whom did the papists intend at once to destroy? In whose name did they hire a house for that nefarious purpose? Did the first house answer their expectations?



disappointment on this account they were soon relieved, by information that the coals were then selling off, and that the vaults would then be let to the highest bidder. They therefore seized the opportunity of hiring the place, and bought the remaining quantity of coals with which it was then stored, as if for their own use. The next thing done was to convey thither thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which had been purchased in Holland; and the whole was covered with coals, and with faggots brought for that purpose. Then the doors of the cellar were boldly thrown open, and everybody admitted, as if it contained nothing dangerous. Confident of success, they now began to plan the remaining part of their project. The king, queen, and prince Henry, the king's eldest son, were all expected to be present at the opening of next parliament. The king's second son, by reason of his tender age, would be absent, and it was resolved that Percy should seize or assassinate him. The princess Elizabeth, a child likewise, was kept at lord Harrington's house in Warwickshire; and Sir Everard Digby was to seize her, and immediately proclaim her queen. Never was treason more secret, or ruin more apparently inevitable. As the day for the sitting of parliament approached, the hour was expected with impatience, and the conspirators gloried in their meditated guilt"—that the estimated number of 30,000 persons, including the king, lords, and commons, would be destroyed in an instant.

345. *Preparations for blowing up Parliament discovered.*—"The dreadful secret, though communicated to above twenty persons, had been religiously kept during the space of near a year and a half; when all the motives of pity, justice, and safety, were too weak, a remorse of private friendship saved the kingdom. One of the conspirators, Sir Henry Percy, conceived a design of saving the life of lord Mounteagle, his intimate friend and companion, who also was of the same Romanist persuasion with himself. About ten days before the meeting of parliament, this nobleman, upon his return to town, received a letter from a person unknown, and delivered by one who fled as soon as he had discharged his message. The letter was to this effect: 'My lord, stay away from this parliament; for God and man have concurred to punish the wickedness of the times. And think not slightly of this

344. What did they do next? On whom did the conspirators intend to bestow the crown?

345. To how many persons had the secret been communicated, and for how long a time? On this occasion what general benefit resulted from private friendship? Relate the letter which Percy sent to lord Mounteagle.



advertisement, but retire yourself into your country, where you may expect the event in safety. For though there be no appearance of any stir, yet I say they will receive a terrible blow this parliament; and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemned, because it may do you good, and can do you no harm. For the danger is passed as soon as you have burned the letter.' This mysterious letter surprised and puzzled the nobleman to whom it was addressed; and though inclined to think it a foolish attempt to affright and ridicule him, yet he judged it safest to carry it to secretary Cecil, now earl of Salisbury. He, too, was inclined to give little attention to it, yet thought proper to lay it before the king in council, who came to town a few days after. None of the council were able to make anything of it, although it appeared serious and alarming. In the universal agitation between doubt and apprehension, the king was the first who penetrated the meaning of this dark epistle. He concluded that some sudden danger was preparing by gunpowder; and it was thought advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament. This care belonged to the earl of Suffolk, lord chamberlain, who purposely delayed the search till the day before the meeting of parliament (Nov. 4th, 1605). He remarked those great piles of faggots which lay in the vault under the house of peers, and seized a man preparing for the terrible enterprise, dressed in a cloak and boots, and a dark lanthorn in his hand. This was no other than Guy Fawkes, who had just disposed every part of the train for its taking fire the next morning, the matches and other combustibles being found in his pockets. The whole design was now discovered: but the atrociousness of his guilt, and the despair of pardon, inspiring him with resolution, he told the officers of justice, with an undaunted air, that had he blown them and himself up together he had been happy. Before the council he displayed the same intrepid firmness, mixed even with scorn and disdain, refusing to discover his associates, and showing no concern but for the failure of his enterprise." Guy Fawkes was then sent to the Tower.

346. *Guy Fawkes divulges his Accomplices—their Fate.*—  
 "Two or three days after being lodged in the Tower, Guy Fawkes was again required to confess all that he knew, or to suffer torture by the rack. On the instrument being just

345. To whom did Mounteagle show it? Before whom was it then laid? Who first penetrated its meaning? To whom did the search officially belong? Whom did the lord chamberlain seize? What was Fawkes's conduct on being apprehended?



shown him his bold spirit was at length subdued ; his courage, fatigued with so long an effort, at last failed him, and he made a full discovery of all his accomplices. On Catesby, Percy, and the conspirators who were in London, hearing that Fawkes was arrested, they fled with all speed to Warwickshire, where Sir Everard Digby, relying on the success of the plot, was already in arms. But the country soon began to take the alarm, and wherever they turned they found a superior force ready to oppose them. In this exigence, beset on all sides, they resolved, to about the number of eighty persons, to fly no further, but to make a stand at a house in Warwickshire, to defend it to the last, and sell their lives as dearly as possible. But even this miserable consolation was denied them ; a spark of fire happening to fall among some gunpowder that was laid to dry, it blew up, and so maimed the principal conspirators, that the survivors resolved to open the gate, and sally out against the multitude that surrounded the house. Some were instantly cut to pieces ; Catesby, Percy, and Winter, standing back to back, fought long and desperately, till in the end the two first fell covered with wounds, and Winter was taken alive. Those that survived the slaughter were tried and convicted ; several fell by the hands of the executioner, and others experienced the king's mercy. The Jesuits, Garnet and Oldcorn, who were privy to the plot, suffered with the rest ; and, notwithstanding the atrociousness of their treason, Garnet was considered by his party as a martyr, and miracles were said to have been wrought by his blood."

347. *Rise and Fall of Carr, Earl of Somerset.*—"The sagacity with which the king first discovered the plot, raised the opinion of his wisdom among the people ; but the folly with which he gave himself up to his favourites quickly undeceived the nation. In the first rank of these stood Robert Carr, a youth of a good family in Scotland, who, after having passed some time in his travels, arrived in London, at about twenty years of age. All his natural accomplishments consisted in a pleasing visage ; and all his acquired abilities in

346. At what sight did Fawkes's courage fail him, and whom did he discover ? To what county of England did the conspirators in London fly on the arrestment of Fawkes ? In what manner did they at last resolve to defend themselves ? What was the fate of the conspirators who were taken prisoners ? Which of the traitors did the Jesuits consider as a martyr ?

348. What effect on the opinion of the people had the king's sagacity in discovering that plot ? Who became the king's favourite ?



an easy and graceful demeanour. This youth was considered as the most rising man at court (1611); he was knighted, created viscount Rochester, honoured with the order of the garter, made a privy-counsellor, and, to raise him to the highest pitch of honour, he was at last created earl of Somerset." Upon the death of the able minister, Cecil, earl of Salisbury (1612), James even made him prime-minister, confiding to him the authority of the crown and the resources of the state. "This was an advancement which some regarded with envy; but the wiser part of mankind looked upon it with contempt and ridicule, sensible that ungrounded attachments are seldom of long continuance. Some time after, being accused and convicted, from private motives, of poisoning Sir Thomas Overbury, in the Tower, he fell under the king's displeasure (1615); and being driven from court, spent the remainder of his life in contempt and self-conviction."

348. *Rise of Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, 1615.*—"But James had not been so improvident as to part with one favourite until he had provided himself with another. This was George Villiers, a youth of one-and-twenty, the younger brother of a good family, who was returned about that time from his travels, and whom the enemies of Somerset had taken occasion to throw in the king's way, certain that his beauty and fashionable manners would do the rest. Accordingly, he had been placed at a comedy full in the king's view, and immediately caught the monarch's affections (1615). In the next year he created him viscount Villiers and earl of Buckingham; and in the following year he became the ruler of England, with entire dominion over James (1617). Soon after he was advanced to the dignity of marquis and duke of Buckingham (1623), knight of the garter, master of the horse, chief justice in Eyre, warden of the cinque ports, master of the king's bench office, steward of Westminster, constable of Windsor, and lord high admiral of England." From this time the history of the court becomes that of Buckingham. He now brought from the country his whole kindred, male and female, had them properly dressed and drilled for the court; quartered them in Whitehall and the adjoining houses; and made their fortunes by places, pensions, and marriages. In corrupt rapacity he excelled Somerset. He appointed per-

347. What honours did Carr receive? Why did the earl of Somerset poison Sir Thomas Overbury? Did he suffer death for that crime? What is the rest of his history?

348. Who was the next favourite of the king? What honours did his majesty bestow upon Villiers?



sons without fortunes to high places, as more entirely dependent on him ; but he made them pay for their advancement, by instalment, out of their salaries.

349. *Raleigh's Voyage to Guiana—His Return and Execution.* —“The universal murmur which these foolish attachments produced was soon after heightened by an act of severity, which still continues as the blackest stain upon this monarch's memory. The brave and learned Sir Walter Raleigh had been confined in the Tower almost from the very beginning of James's accession, for a conspiracy which had never been proved against him ; and in that abode of wretchedness he wrote many valuable performances, which are still in the highest esteem. His long sufferings, and his ingenious writings, had now turned the tide of popular opinion in his favour ; and they who once detested the enemy of Essex, could not now help pitying the long captivity of this philosophical soldier. He himself still struggled for freedom ; and perhaps it was with this desire that he spread the report of his having discovered a gold mine in Guiana, which was sufficient to enrich not only the adventurers who should seize it, but afford immense treasures to the nation. The king, either believing his assertions, or willing to subject him to further disgrace, granted him a commission to try his fortune in quest of these golden schemes, but still reserved his former sentence as a check upon his future behaviour (1616). On obtaining his liberty after thirteen years' imprisonment, Raleigh was not long in making preparations for this adventure, which, from the sanguine manner in which he carried it on, many believe he thought to be as promising as he described it. He sailed from Portsmouth in April, 1617, and bent his course to Guiana. On arriving at the mouth of the river Oroonoko, he there remained with five of the largest ships, and sent the rest up the stream, under the command of his son and Captain Keymis, a person devoted to his interest. But, instead of a country abounding in gold, as the adventurers were taught to expect, they found the Spaniards had been warned of their approach, and were prepared to receive them. Young Raleigh, to encourage his men, called out, that ‘that was the true mine,’ meaning the town of St. Thomas, which he was approaching ; ‘and that none but fools looked for any other : but just as he was speaking he received a shot, of which he immediately expired. This was followed by another disappointment, for when the English took possession of the town,

349. What report did Raleigh spread ? Relate his expedition.



they found nothing in it of any value. In this forlorn situation Raleigh found now that all his hopes were over, and saw his misfortunes still further aggravated by the reproaches of those whom he had undertaken to command. Nothing could be more deplorable than his situation, particularly when he was told that he must be carried back to England to answer for his conduct to the king. It is pretended that he employed many artifices, first to engage them to attack the Spanish settlements in a time of peace, and, failing of that, to make his escape into France. But all those proving unsuccessful, he was delivered into the king's hands, and strictly examined, as well as his fellow-adventurers, before the privy council. Count Gondemar, the Spanish ambassador, made heavy complaints against the expedition; and the king declared that Raleigh had express orders to avoid all disputes and hostilities against the Spaniards. Wherefore, to give the court of Spain a particular instance of his attachment, he signed the warrant for his execution; not for the present offence, but for his former conspiracy. This great man died in the sixty-sixth year of his age, with the same fortitude that he had testified through life; he observed, as he felt the edge of the axe, that it was a sharp but a sure remedy for all evils; his harangue to the people was calm and eloquent; and he laid his head down on the block, erected in Palace Yard, with the utmost indifference (Oct. 29, 1618)."

350. *Negotiations about the Spanish Marriage.*—"But there soon appeared very apparent reasons for James's partiality to the court of Spain. This monarch had entertained an opinion which was peculiar to himself, that in marrying his son Charles, the prince of Wales, any alliance below that of royalty would be unworthy of him; he therefore was obliged to seek, either in the court of France or Spain, a suitable match, and he was taught to think of the latter. Gondemar, who was an ambassador from that court, perceiving this weak monarch's partiality to a crowned head, made an offer of the second daughter of Spain to prince Charles; and, that he might render the temptation irresistible, he gave hopes of an immense fortune which should attend the princess. However, this was a negotiation that was not likely soon to be

349. What was alleged against him? For what offence did the king sign the warrant for his execution?

350. Why was James partial to the court of Spain? What were James's ideas with respect to the marriage of his son Charles? Who took advantage of that notion? What prospect did the Spanish ambassador hold out to James?



ended: and from the time the idea was first started, James saw five years elapse without bringing the treaty to any kind of conclusion. This delay was very displeasing to the king, who had all along an eye on the great fortune of the princess; nor was it less disagreeable to prince Charles, who, bred up with the ideas of romantic passion, was in love without ever seeing the object of his affections. In this general tedium of delay, a project entered the head of Villiers, who had for some years ruled the king with absolute authority, that was fitter to be conceived by the knight of a romance, than by a minister and a statesman. It was projected that the prince should himself travel in disguise into Spain, and visit the princess of that country in person. Buckingham, who wanted to ingratiate himself with the prince, offered to be his companion; and the king, whose business it was to check so wild a scheme, gave his consent to this hopeful proposal (Feb., 1623). Their adventures on this strange project would fill novels, and have actually been made the subject of many. Charles was the knight-errant, and Buckingham was his 'squire. The match, however, broke off, for what reasons historians do not assign; but, if we may credit the novelists of that time, the prince had already fixed his affections upon Henrietta, daughter of Henry IV. of France, whom he married shortly after."

351. *Encroachments of Parliament*.—"It may easily be supposed that these mismanagements were seen and felt by the people. The House of Commons was by this time become quite unmanageable (1624); the prodigality of James to his favourites had made his necessities so many, that he was contented to sell the different branches of his prerogative to the commons, one after the other, to procure supplies. In proportion as they perceived his wants, they found out new grievances; and every grant of money was sure to come with a petition for redress (see § 342 (6)). The struggles between him and his parliament had been growing more and more violent every session; and in the very last they advanced their pretensions to such a degree, that he began to take the alarm; but these evils fell upon the successor, which the weakness of this monarch had contributed to accelerate."

352. *War with Spain and Germany, 1624*.—"These domestic troubles were attended by others still more important in

350. How many years elapsed before the conclusion of the treaty? Relate the adventure of Charles and Buckingham. Why was the match broken off? Whom did Charles afterwards marry?

351. What was the consequence of James's prodigality to his favourites? Upon whom did the evil of contending with parliament at last fall?



Germany, and which produced in the end the most dangerous effects. The king's eldest daughter had been married to Frederick, elector palatine of Germany, and afterwards king of Bohemia; and this prince, revolting against the emperor Ferdinand II., was defeated in the decisive battle of Prague (1620), and obliged to take refuge in Holland. His affinity to the English crown, his misfortunes, but particularly the protestant religion, for which he had contended, were strong motives for the people of England to wish well to his cause; and frequent addresses were sent from the Commons to spur up James to take a part in the German contest, and to replace the exiled prince upon the throne of his ancestors. James at first attempted to ward off the misfortunes of his son-in-law by negotiation; but this proving utterly ineffectual, it was resolved at last to rescue the palatinate from the emperor by force of arms (1624). Accordingly, war was declared against Spain and the emperor; 6000 men were sent over into Holland, to assist prince Maurice of Orange in his schemes against those powers; the people were everywhere elated at the courage of their king, and were satisfied with any war which was to exterminate the papists. This army was followed by another, consisting of 12,000 men, commanded by count Mansfeldt, James engaging to furnish £20,000 a month for their subsistence; and the court of France promised its assistance. But the English were disappointed in all their views; the troops being embarked at Dover, upon sailing to Calais, they found no orders for their admission. After waiting in vain for some time, they were obliged to sail towards Zealand, where no proper measures were yet concerted for their disembarkation. Meanwhile, a pestilential distemper crept in among the forces, so long cooped up in narrow vessels; half the army died while on board, and the other half, weakened by sickness, appeared too small a body to march into the palatinate; and thus ended this ill-concerted and fruitless expedition (1624)."

353. *Death of James I.*—"Whether this misfortune had any effect upon James's constitution is uncertain, but he was soon after seized with a tertian ague, which, when his courtiers assured him from the proverb that it was health for a king, he replied, that the proverb was meant for a young king. After some fits, he found himself extremely weakened, and

352. To whom had his eldest daughter been married? Against whom did that elector revolt? Why did the Commons wish well to his cause? What did James first attempt with respect to his son-in-law? Describe the expedition which followed soon after.

353. With what distemper was the king seized?



sent for the prince, whom he exhorted to persevere in the protestant religion: then preparing with decency and courage to meet his end, he expired at Theobalds, near Cheshunt, on the 27th of March, 1625, after a reign over England of twenty-two years, and in the fifty-ninth year of his age, leaving issue by Anne of Denmark, prince Charles and Elizabeth, ex-queen of Bohemia."

354. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). James is accused of indiscretion, pedantry, weakness, meanness, prodigality to favourites, and even odious crimes; but it may be doubted whether all that is alleged against him ought to attach to his memory. He is himself at least entitled to the honour of having founded civilisation in Ireland, where agriculture and landed property were unknown. Perhaps the worst that can be justly said of him is, that he reigned like a woman, after a woman who reigned like a man.

(2). James's notions of the prerogative were not a whit more exalted than those of Elizabeth, and if he held to them as firmly, he acted far more conscientiously and consistently in the matter than the woman-king. At the very commencement of his reign he attempted to procure a strict entail on the monarch and his heirs for ever of the remaining state lands to prevent their further alienation, as the only means of preserving the hitherto inherent prerogatives of the monarch against the systematic assaults of the commons, now chiefly the new landholders, the possessors of the extensive church and state lands alienated in the four preceding reigns. The bill for the above purpose, though passed by the lords, was rejected by the commons. This procedure on their part clearly showed that they desired rather to encourage than to prevent the alienation of the national property, as the surest means of subjugating the power of the monarch.

(3). For the first fourteen years of James' reign his certain constitutional revenue did not exceed £370,000 a year, which was made up by £32,000 from the crown demesnes, by £127,000 from the customs of tunnage and poundage,\* and by about £200,000 arising from the feudal incidents of reliefs, alienation, wardship, &c. (§ 174); while his total average revenue amounted to only about £450,000 a year. The difference between his certain and actual revenue had therefore either to be made up by taxation, authorised by parliament, or by other means. During his entire reign of twenty-two years, James was only able to obtain from the commons four grants in the nature of taxation, in all nine lay and eleven and a half clerical subsidies with ten tenths and fifteenths, producing together about £1,150,000, or an average supplement to the constitutional revenue of only about £52,300 a year. So James, like Elizabeth, was obliged to make up his revenue

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353. In what year of his life and reign over England did he die? How many children did he leave?

\* The rates were 3s. on every tun of wine imported; but on a tun of sweet wine 6s., and 1s. on every awn or forty gallons of Rhenish. The poundage was 1s. on every 20s. worth of goods or merchandise imported and exported, excepting woollen manufactures; and tin and pewter ware to pay 2s. A denizen was to pay, for every sack of wool, 33s. 4d.; and for every 240 woolfells the same; and for every last of hides and backs, 66s. 8d.



by the further sale of the crown estates and other unconstitutional practices, as by the sale of honours at the rate of one, ten, twenty, and thirty thousand pounds for the dignity of a baronet, baron, viscount, and earl: monopolies were likewise sold or given away to his favourites, and as rewards for public services; benevolences were also solicited; and fines were often arbitrarily imposed, as on the earl of Northumberland, the lords Mordaunt and Stourton, for alleged complicity in the famous gunpowder plot.

(4). When such was the state of James's revenue, and the well-known temper of the House of Commons, it is not surprising that even the reputed *weak-minded* and *pusillanimous* king should have resisted involving himself until within a few months of his death in continental wars for any purpose whatever. It will be seen at the very commencement of the next reign, that James was driven into a declaration of war against Spain and Germany for no other purpose than to enable the House of Commons, by means of the king's necessities, to "obtain supreme ascendancy in the State."

(5). Except William the Conqueror, James I. appears to have been as much his own minister as any of his predecessors; while he undoubtedly arrived at a more correct appreciation of that which would be for the permanent benefit of his country than all the chivalry of the Henrys and the Edwards, whatever may be stated to the contrary by various writers. The unfairly-designated weak-minded James was himself, at least, the deviser and establisher of civilisation in Ireland, as well as the founder of a new era in the maritime history of England. It is undoubtedly true that he was, in his mode of thinking, the greatest possible contrast to all his royal predecessors since the Conquest. The erratic James was really in advance of the ablest politicians of his age. He reckoned no sacrifice too great to obtain the inestimable blessing of peace, except that of winning it by the sword; and as his ideas of his own diplomatic skill were *ludicrously* boundless, he temporised and negotiated, when others would have fought. On his accession he concluded a treaty of peace with Spain and Austria, which enabled the country to withdraw its attention from the unprofitable pursuits of war, and to cultivate the arts of peace. In, however, pursuing his peaceful policy, James did not neglect to maintain the honour of the British flag; and on the encroachments of the Dutch and French being represented to him, he dispatched a fleet, in 1604, under the command of Sir William Monson, to maintain the rights which had been transmitted to him from his predecessors. This brave admiral obliged the Dutch and French to pay the accustomed honours to his flag during the whole time that he held the command of the narrow seas, which was for a period of twelve years. He obliged the Dutch and French fishing vessels to take out a licence, before they were allowed to fish on the British coast. He also made a voyage round Great Britain and Ireland to scour the seas of pirates, which service was performed in three months. The encouragement of trade was especially agreeable to the pacific mind of James, and it had the additional advantage of promoting the development of national wealth, and creating the future sources of naval power—a mercantile marine. The incorporation of the East India Company is one of the most memorable events in his reign; until then, the trade to that country had only been carried on by individuals. But on their establishment as a body, they fitted out a fleet in 1612, the vessels of which consisted of the *New Year's Gift* of 650 tons, the *Hector* of



500, the Merchants' Hope of 300, and the Solomon of 200; and, as they were designed to establish an English trade in the Eastern world in the face of powerful rivals, they were fitted for war as well as merchandise. The enterprise of the owners was rewarded by the result. About this time the merchants had become so remiss in building ships, preferring to hire those belonging to strangers, that in 1615, there were not above ten ships, belonging to the port of London, exceeding 200 tons burden. Upon this the Trinity House petitioned the king to prohibit the export of any goods in foreign bottoms, so that the merchants should be obliged to build vessels for carrying on their trade; but so far had the infatuation gone, that the merchants resisted this proposal, and petitioned the king to permit the conveyance of British merchandise in foreign vessels. Accident at length awoke them to their own interest, and that of the nation. Two Dutch ships, each of 300 tons burden, belonging to Dutch residents in London, entered the port, laden with cotton and coffee; and certain English merchants who were looking on, were so struck with the conviction of the enterprising spirit of the foreigners, contrasted with their own ruinous negligence, that in a happy hour they proclaimed their sentiments and the impulse became general. A contrary petition to that of the preceding year was now addressed to James; upon which a proclamation was immediately issued, forbidding any English subject to export or import goods in any but English bottoms. This had the immediate effect of inducing the merchants to turn their attention to ship-building; large and well-armed merchant ships were thereafter built, and the country resumed its nautical habits. Such indeed was the increase in shipping, that in 1622 (only seven years after the period when the port of London was so poor in naval resources), Newcastle alone possessed one hundred vessels of more than 200 tons burden. The pacific and necessitous James also so fully appreciated the true source of national safety, that the royal fleet was one of the first objects of his attention. During the five years preceding 1623, he caused to be built ten new ships, by which the navy was augmented nearly a fourth; and to this important purpose he devoted from his impoverished revenue, £50,000 per annum, besides timber from the royal forests to the value of £36,000. Among the new ships thus added was the Royal Prince, at that time reckoned a master-piece of naval architecture. It was 114 feet in length, of 1400 tons burden, and pierced for sixty-four pieces of ordnance. In the ship-building of this period, we find that nearly the same proportion was observed between the tonnage of a ship and the number of its guns, as at present prevails. Indeed, England was so particularly famed for ship-building and cannon-founding during this period, that the latter parliaments of James I. made heavy complaints against the exportation of ordnance.

(6). The greatest errors in James's administration were his excessive partiality for the hierarchical government of the Church of England, the only authority for which being derived from that of Rome, and his countenancing the proceedings of the prelates to enforce conformity even to depriving dissentients of their civil rights. In England the puritans, then certainly the most earnest religionists in the country, were kept in a constant state of irritation during his reign, while, by engrafting episcopacy upon established Presbyterianism (church-government chiefly by the laity) in Scotland, exasperation against James's government became general throughout that country.



(7). It is deserving of especial notice that the last claim of villenage, which is recorded in our courts of law, was in the 15th year of this reign (1617). This fact establishes how strenuously the emancipation of the commonalty had been resisted by the legislators of England.

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## CHARLES I.

Began to reign March 27th, 1625 ;—beheaded Jan. 30th, 1649.

355. *Charles weds Henrietta of France.*—Charles I., only son of the late king, was twenty-five years of age at his accession: he made no material alteration in the ministry, so that the Duke of Buckingham maintained his influence at Court. His marriage with Henrietta of France, which had been interrupted by the death of James, was now concluded. The ceremony was performed on a platform in front of the cathedral of Paris, where the Duke of Chevreuse acted as proxy for Charles (May, 1625). Seven days after, Henrietta set out for her husband's Court, escorted by the Duke of Buckingham, who delivered her into the arms of her husband, at Dover, on the 13th of June. From thence the King conducted Henrietta in great splendour to the palace at Hampton Court, avoiding London in consequence of a virulent epidemic which then swept away above 35,000 persons. Charles was not crowned until February next, when his queen not only refused to be crowned by a protestant bishop, but even to be present at the protestant coronation of her husband.

356. *Charles's First Parliament—Is abruptly dissolved, 1625.*—“ Few princes ever ascended the throne with more apparent advantages than Charles; and none ever encountered more real difficulties. He, indeed, undertook the reins of government with a fixed persuasion that his popularity was sufficient to carry every measure; but in this he was soon undeceived. On parliament assembling, on the fifth day after the arrival of his consort, Charles requested an immediate

355. In what years did the reign of Charles I. commence and terminate? How old was he on his accession? Who did he wed? Where was the marriage between them officially performed? Where did Charles receive his bride? Why did they not come to London? When was Charles crowned? How did his queen act on that occasion?

356. Under what circumstances did Charles ascend the throne? With what false opinion did he undertake the reins of government?



supply to enable him to liquidate the debts of his father to the amount of 700,000*l.*, and to commence the war with vigour against Spain and Germany, which had been advised by the last parliament for defending the king of Bohemia, his brother-in-law. But war was more easily declared than supplies granted." After some reluctance, the commons voted him two subsidies and the duties of tunnage and poundage *for one year*, which part of the bill the lords rejected, as they had always been granted for the king's life since the time of Henry V. So that Charles only obtained authority to collect two subsidies, which produced about 145,000*l.*, a sum far from sufficient even to support him in his intended equipment. This procedure on the part of parliament had for its object to compel the dismissal from court of the duke of Buckingham, and to require the enforcement of the laws against Roman Catholics, who were in expectation of more tolerant times, in virtue of stipulations entered into by Charles with the court of France, without the concurrence of parliament. To avoid at this time irritating the parliament the king promised to consider both matters. This answer not being held satisfactory, every suggestion of a further subsidy made by the court party was opposed or evaded. The commons did not absolutely refuse supplies; they pretended to be ready to grant them upon *the condition of a redress of grievances*; Charles desired to have the supplies as a right without the condition, and, failing in his object, released himself from control by an abrupt dissolution of parliament (Augt. 12th, 1625). "To supply the want of parliamentary aids, Charles had next recourse to some of the ancient methods of extortion, practised by sovereigns when in necessitous circumstances. That kind of tax called benevolence was ordered to be exacted, and privy seals were issued accordingly. With this the people were obliged, though reluctantly, to comply; it was in fact authorised by many precedents; but no precedent whatsoever could give a sanction to injustice."

357. *The second Parliament: no Act passed.* — "After an ineffectual expedition to Cadiz, under the command of Sir Robert Cecil (now created viscount Wimbledon), another attempt was made to obtain supplies in a more regular and constitutional manner than before. A second parliament was

356. Did parliament grant liberal supplies for carrying on the war? Why did they do so? How did both parties next act? Why did Charles abruptly dissolve his first parliament? To what had he then recourse?

357. What was the result of the expedition to Cadiz?



accordingly called (Feb., 1626); and though some steps were taken to exclude the more popular leaders of the last house of commons, by nominating seven of the most hostile members to be sheriffs of counties, yet the same men, for the most part, came again to this parliament more refractory and irritated with the sovereign than before. When the king laid before the house his necessities, and asked for a supply, they voted him only 3000*l.*; a sum no way adequate to the importance of the war, or the necessities of the State. This insulting grant was even made on condition that the duke of Buckingham should be removed from the king's councils. Charles rejected the demand, and again dissolved the parliament without one act having been passed (15th June, 1626). In order, therefore, to gain a sufficient supply, a royal commission was openly granted to compound with the Catholics, and to agree for a dispensation of the penal laws against them, thereby making the sale of licences a regular source of revenue. Charles demanded loans of money from the public, whose contributions came in so slowly, even although preached in favour of by the clergy, that many persons were committed to prison for refusing to give them. But the greatest stretch of his power, was in the levying of ship-money. In order to equip a fleet (at least this was the pretence made) each of the maritime towns was required, with the assistance of the adjacent counties, to arm as many vessels as were appointed them. The city of London was rated at twenty ships. This was the commencement of a tax, which afterwards being carried to such violent lengths, created such great discontents in the nation."

358. *War with France—Expedition to Rochelle, 1627.*—"War being soon after declared against France, at the instigation of Buckingham, a fleet was sent out (June, 1627), under his command, to relieve Rochelle, a maritime town in that kingdom, that had long enjoyed its privileges independent of the French king; but that had for some time embraced the Reformed religion, and now was besieged with a formidable army. This expedition was as unfortunate as that to the coasts of Spain. The duke's measures were so ill-concerted, that the inhabitants of the city shut their gates, and refused to admit allies, of whose coming they

357. What steps were taken to control his second parliament? What sum did it vote? How did Charles then act? What besides? What was the greatest stretch of his authority? Under what pretence was the tax levied? What consequences followed?

358. What was the result of the expedition to Rochelle? What proof of incapacity to command did Buckingham give?



were not previously informed. Instead of attacking the island of Oleron, which was fertile and defenceless, he bent his course to the isle of Rhè, which was garrisoned and well fortified. He attempted there to starve out the garrison of St. Martin's castle, which was plentifully supplied with provisions by sea. By that time the French had landed their forces privately at another part of the island; so that Buckingham was at last obliged to retreat, but with such precipitation, that two-thirds of his army were cut in pieces before he could re-embark, though he was the last man of the whole army that quitted the shore. This proof of his personal courage, however, was but a small subject of consolation for the disgrace which his country had sustained, for his own person would have been the last they would have regretted."

359. *The third Parliament—Charles assents to the Petition of Rights.*—Such was the state of the king's affairs at home and abroad at the commencement of the year 1628. The infatuation with which Charles surrendered himself to the pernicious counsels of Buckingham led him to continue an unnecessary war; and his arbitrary measures, whilst they placed him in hostility with the independent and intellectual mass of his subjects, failed to produce him revenue. There was now raised a general cry for the only remedy—a parliament. The public reason and popular English feeling could not be resisted, and the king, reduced moreover to the last extremity, gave way to it. Charles opened his *third* parliament on the 17th of March, with a speech intimating that they were called together to vote a supply, enjoining speed, and communicating that if they (meaning the commons) did not do their duty in contributing what the State then needed, he must, in discharge of his conscience, use other means to save that which the follies of particular men might otherwise hazard to lose. "Take not this," he added, "as a threatening, for I scorn to threaten any but my equals, but as an admonition from him that both out of nature and duty hath most care of your preservations and properties!" This insulting procedure widened the breach between the king and the commons. Those whom the artifice of appointing them sheriffs had kept out of the last parliament, and the imprisoned "refusers" (§ 357), who were returned by every constituency to which they offered themselves, brought into this parliament a spirit of resistance and purpose of redress

358. What personal virtue did he display?

359. In what way was the public discontent expressed? For what purpose did Charles intimate that parliament was assembled?



more keen and resolute from personal exasperation. In place of proceeding as required to vote a supply, the commons immediately took up the matter of grievance, under the general heads of billeting soldiers, privy seals, raising money by benevolences and by loans, the imprisonment of persons who refused to lend, and the remanding of the five refusers,\* who had brought their *habeas corpus*.† Pending their discussion the commons, however, resolved that five subsidies should be granted to the king. Charles, impatient to touch the subsidies, sent a message to the commons, desiring that the house would make no Easter recess. The house claimed the exclusive right of adjournment. The commons adhered to their privilege. Message upon message came from the king to hasten the subsidy. But these were unheeded; the commons being resolved to authorise no taxation until the before-particularised grievances were abolished for ever. They in turn presented to the king *the memorable Petition of Rights*. Charles, now well knowing that to refuse it would deprive him of pecuniary assistance, and to consent would be giving out of his hands a powerful weapon, gave an evasive and ambiguous answer. The commons, after three days of discussion, joined with the lords, and demanded a more explicit answer; whereon Charles seeing the danger of further resistance, replied, "Let right be done, as is desired." This answer gave universal joy, the five subsidies were voted, and a bill was passed granting five other subsidies from the clergy, making together about 450,000*l*. The parliament, having gained this victory, determined to go still further. They next sent an address to the king, stating that in consequence of the bad administration of Buckingham, the religion of the

359. What concessions were demanded before supplies were granted? Why did Charles comply with the request of the two houses? What were these concessions collectively called?

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\* Sir Thomas Darnell, Sir John Corbet, Sir Walter Earl, Sir John Hevering, and Sir Edward Hampden.

† *Habeas Corpus*. The common law, the reverend origin and bulwark of our liberties, ever asserted the personal liberty of individuals, unless by due course of law. Hence the provision in Magna Charta that "No freeman shall be seized, or imprisoned, or dispossessed, or outlawed, or in any way destroyed; nor will we condemn him, nor will we commit him to prison, excepting by the legal judgement of his peers, or by the laws of the land" (c. 39). It is a mistaken notion that the writ of *habeas corpus* is of a modern date. It is only here that it was difficult to be obtained, because the judges who had authority to issue it, pretended to have power either to grant or deny it; and the sheriffs and gaolers, to whom the writ was directed, frequently put poor prisoners to the charges of a second and third *habeas corpus*, before they would yield obedience to it; that is, to bring the body of the person into the Court of King's Bench, and there to answer the charges alleged against him before the judges and a jury of his peers.



country was in danger; that his inglorious expedition had tarnished the honour of the nation, annihilated its commerce, and greatly diminished its navy. They prayed, therefore, that for the safety of the realm his majesty would dismiss the obnoxious minister: insinuating at the same time that otherwise they would not grant the tax of tunnage and poundage, and that he could not demand it without their consent. Before they however had time to get their address engrossed, a message was sent to the commons desiring their presence at the house of lords; they found the king on the throne. He addressed a few words to them concerning the royal prerogative, and concluded by saying that he was sure they did not intend to refuse him the tunnage and poundage, and that he could not do without it. He then gave his assent to the subsidy-bills, and *immediately prorogued the parliament* (June 26, 1628).

360. *The Petition of Rights*, 1628.—The statute called the Petition of Rights was drawn up by Sir Edward Coke, some time lord chief justice of England, and one of the most distinguished lawyers this country has produced, then in his seventy-ninth year. After reciting the various laws which have established certain essential privileges of the subject, and enumerating the violations of them which had recently occurred, it affirmed and confirmed the enactments of Magna Charta (c. 39), that no freeman be deprived of his liberty or his property except by judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land; also of several statutes that no man, of whatever estate or condition, should be taken, imprisoned, disinherited, or put to death, without being brought to answer by due process of law (28 Ed. III. c. 32; 17 Rich. II.). Explicitly as the Statute of Rights was worded, the faithless Charles resorted to many perfidious equivocations and subterfuges in order to throw doubt on the operation of the statute.

361. *Buckingham murdered*, 1628.—Charles again turned his attention to the protestants in France. The Rochellers held out against the power and genius of cardinal Richelieu, and all the hardships of a siege. Buckingham, when he left the isle of Rhè, promised to return. He now sent his brother-in-law, the inexperienced and incapable lord Denbigh, with a fleet to their assistance, which returned without effecting anything. "In order to repair this disgrace, the duke of Buckingham went in person to Portsmouth, to hurry on another expedition, and to punish such as had endeavoured

359. Why did the king prorogue parliament?

360. By whom was the Petition of Rights drawn up? What are its chief provisions?



to defraud the crown of the legal assessments. In the general discontent that prevailed against this nobleman, it was daily expected that some severe measures would be resolved on; and he was stigmatised as the tyrant and betrayer of his country. There was one John Felton, who caught the general contagion; an Irishman of a good family, who had served under the duke as lieutenant, but had resigned, on being refused his rank on the death of his captain, who had been killed at the isle of Rhè. This man was naturally melancholy, courageous, and enthusiastic; he felt for his country, as if labouring under a calamity which he thought it in the power of his single arm to remove. He therefore resolved to kill the duke, and thus revenge his own private injuries, while he did service also to God and man. Animated in this manner with gloomy zeal, and mistaken patriotism, he travelled down to Portsmouth alone, and entered the town while the duke was there to see carried out the necessary orders for embarkation. While he was speaking to one of his colonels, in passing from his breakfast-room through a hall to his carriage, Felton struck him over an officer's shoulder in the breast with his knife. The duke had only time to say, 'The villain has killed me,' when he fell at the colonel's feet, and instantly expired (Aug. 23rd, 1628). Such was the end of George Villiers, duke of Buckingham, when he had just entered his thirty-seventh year. No one had seen the blow, nor the person who gave it; but a hat being picked up, on the inside of which was sewed a paper, containing four or five lines of the remonstrance of the commons against the duke, it was concluded that this hat must belong to the assassin; and while they were employed in conjectures whose it should be, a man without a hat was seen walking very composedly before the door, and was heard to cry out, 'I am he.' He disdained denying a murder in which he gloried; and averred that he had looked upon the duke as an enemy to his country, and as such deserving to suffer. When asked at whose instigation he had perpetrated that horrid deed, he answered that they need not trouble themselves in that inquiry; that his conscience was his only prompter, and that no man on earth could dispose him to act against its dictates. The king desired that the secret of his instigators should be obtained from him by torture; but the judges declared torture contrary to law. He was then hanged

361. Where was Buckingham killed? On what business was he then engaged? By whom was he murdered, and what led to the discovery of the murderer? What punishment was inflicted on Felton, and how did he bear it?



in chains at Portsmouth, suffering with the same degree of constancy to the last; nor were there many wanting, who admired not only his fortitude, but the action for which he suffered."

362. *Second Expedition to Rochelle, 1628.*—The command of the expedition was now given to the earl of Lindsay, who made a futile and unsuccessful attempt to relieve Rochelle, which, in consequence, soon after surrendered at discretion to the king of France. This event threw Charles and the country into great affliction; it was considered as the destruction of one of the strongest continental bulwarks of the protestant interest; but the attention of the country was soon attracted by the meeting of parliament, which had been prorogued from the 20th of October to the 20th of January, 1629.

363. *Proceedings in Parliament—Origin of the term High Churchmen.*—On the re-assembling of parliament the king asked the commons to proceed with the bill for tunnage and poundage; but they replied that civil, and particularly religious, grievances must have the precedence, and that the business of an earthly king must give place to the business of the king of Heaven. The increasing sect called Arminians now occasioned great alarm throughout the country. Of these the chief was Laud, now bishop of London, and in fact, though not in name, at the head of the hierarchy. The spurious Arminianism of Laud was not a matter of mere dogma; it was an engine created to give the king, as head of the church, a power like that of the pope over the rights, ceremonies, and faith of the people; it was a barrier to exclude the Calvinists, who were all the most popular and independent divines, from the rich gifts of the church; and its essence was to maintain the king's absolute power over the liberty and property of the subject, by prostituting the authority of the spiritual character, in wicked denunciations of the wrath of God and eternal perdition upon what they called the impious treason of men, who only resisted the robbery of their estates, and the oppression of their persons. Such was the Arminianism of Laud, and the party now called the High Churchmen.

364. *The third Parliament dissolved—Protest against High-Churchism.*—On the 25th of February, a sub-committee of religion presented a long and elaborate report of "heads of

362. Why was the failure of the expedition so much regretted?

363. What answer did the parliament give to the king on being required to proceed with his business? What were the tenets of the Arminians? Who was their recognised chief? What did the party come to be called?



articles to be insisted upon by the house." Charles, to ward off this terrible array of charges, chiefly aimed at the so-called Arminianism of Laud, sent a command to both houses to adjourn to the 26th of March. Whereon, the commons forcibly prevented the speaker (Sir John Finch) from leaving the chair until the following protest was voted:—1. Whoever shall bring in innovation in religion, or by favour seek to extend or introduce popery or Arminianism, or other opinions disagreeing from the true and orthodox church, shall be reputed a capital enemy to this kingdom and commonwealth. 2. Whoever shall counsel or advise the taking and levying the subsidies of tunnage and poundage, not being granted by parliament, or shall be an actor or instrument therein, shall be likewise reputed an innovator in the government, and a capital enemy to this kingdom and commonwealth. 3. If any merchant, or other person whatever, shall voluntarily yield or pay the said subsidies of tunnage and poundage, not being granted by parliament, he shall likewise be reputed a betrayer of the liberties of England and an enemy to the same. On the 10th of March, Charles came to the house of lords, and after a speech in which he called the patriot members of the house of commons vipers, who should have their rewards, commanded the lord-keeper to declare the parliament dissolved (Mar. 2nd, 1629). Nine members of the commons were thereafter imprisoned in the Tower. These true and virtuous patriots, whose names were long covered with obloquy or oblivion, were Sir John Elliot, Sir Peter Hayman, Sir Miles Hobart, John Selden, Denzil Hallis, Benjamin Valentine, William Curyton, Walter Long, and William Strode.

365. *Peace with France and Spain—Hamilton, Strafford, and Laud.*—"The king's first measure on being left without a minister and a parliament was a prudent one. He made peace with France and Spain, against whom he had hitherto waged wars, which had been entered upon without necessity and conducted without glory, without requiring stipulations of any kind either in favour of the French protestants or his brother-in-law the king of Bohemia (Nov., 1630). Being now freed from the embarrassments of war, Charles bent his

364. Why did the king dissolve this parliament? How was the speaker of the House of Commons treated on the occasion, and what was his name? By whom was he held on the chair, and for what purpose? What sects were declared enemies to the State? How did the king show his displeasure on this occasion?

365. With what kingdoms did Charles make peace? To what did he next bend his whole attention?



whole attention to the management of the internal policy of the kingdom, and took three men as his associates in this task, who still acted an under part to himself. These were the marquis of Hamilton; Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards earl of Strafford; and Laud, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury. They influenced in concert the general measures of Charles's government, and each had, at the same time, his particular charge,—Hamilton of the affairs of Scotland, Wentworth of England, and Laud of the church (1632). A declaration was dispersed, implying, that during this reign no more parliaments would be summoned, and every measure of the king but too well served to confirm the suspicion. Tonnage and poundage were continued to be levied by royal authority alone; custom-house officers received orders from the council to enter any house whatever, in search of suspected goods: compositions were openly made with papists; and their religion was become a regular part of the revenue. The high-commission court of Star-chamber\* exercised its power independent of any law, upon several bold innovators in liberty, who only gloried in their sufferings, and contributed to render government odious and contemptible. Prynne, a barrister, of Lincoln's-inn, Burton, a divine, and Bastwick, a physician, were tried before this tribunal for schismatical libels, in which they attacked, with great severity and intemperate zeal, the ceremonies of the church of England. They were condemned to be pilloried, to lose their ears, to pay 500*l.* to the king, and to be imprisoned for life (1633). These dreadful seve-

365. Who assisted him? Of what department did Laud take the charge—and Strafford? What threat was now held out to the nation? By whose authority was tonnage and poundage levied? On whom did the Star-chamber exercise its power? What sentence did the Star-chamber pronounce on the authors of schismatical libels? Who suffered by that sentence?

\* The court of Star-chamber was instituted at a very ancient period to punish riots, forgeries, perjuries, and other such misdemeanors as were not sufficiently provided for by the common law, and for which the inferior judges were not so proper to give correction. It was remodelled in the reigns of Henry VII. and VIII., its judges thereafter consisting of divers lords spiritual and temporal, being privy councillors, together with two judges of the courts of common law, without the intervention of any jury. Their jurisdiction was afterwards stretched to the asserting of all proclamations, and orders of state; to the vindicating of illegal commissions and grants of monopolies; to the holding for honourable that which pleased, and for just that which brought money into the king's treasury; and to the punishing by very great fines, imprisonments, and corporal securities, whoever incurred the displeasure of the king. The designation Star-chamber is of uncertain etymology. One of the most probable is that suggested by the employment of the word *starrum*, in a very ancient statute of the University of Cambridge, for a schedule or inventory. Such inventories would be made at the king's exchequer, and the room where they were deposited would probably come to be called the Star-chamber. The council room formed the eastern side of the palace of Westminster, which previously might have been the *starrum* of the exchequer.—See 4 Blackstone, 267, and Christian's note thereon.



rities did not reform Prynne. His ears were so cleverly stitched on that they grew again as before to his head when in the Tower. These he risked a second time by addressing a sharp letter of remonstrance to primate Laud. The archbishop placed his letter in the hands of the king, who referred the matter to the attorney-general. Noy had Prynne brought before him from the Tower, and asked him whether he had written the letter. Prynne said he must see it before he could answer, and having received it, took advantage of Noy's turning his back, to tear it and throw the fragments out of the window; proceedings were commenced against him in the Star-chamber, but were abandoned in consequence of the destruction of the letter (1634).

366. *Ship-money*—*John Hampden*, 1637-43.—“Every year, every month, every day, gave fresh instances, during the intermission of parliaments, of the resolutions of the court to throw them off for ever; but the levying of *Ship-money*,\* as it was called, being a general burden, was universally complained of as a national grievance. This was an assessment or tax which had, in former reigns, been leviable without the consent of parliament; but then the exigency of the State demanded such a supply. John Hampden, a gentleman of fortune in Buckinghamshire, refused to comply with the tax, and resolved to bring it to a legal determination. He had been rated at twenty shillings for his estate, which he refused to pay; and the case was argued twelve days in the court of Exchequer, before all the judges of England. The nation regarded with the utmost anxiety the result of a trial which was to fix the limits of the king's power. All the judges, four only excepted, gave sentence in favour of the crown; while Hampden, who lost his cause, was more than sufficiently recompensed” by becoming one of the most popular men in the kingdom. From that time he was considered by the people as the father of his country; he was distinguished by the illustrious title of Patriot Hampden; and he took the lead of his party in opposition to the mea-

366. What tax was considered a national grievance? Who first refused to pay it, and what was the amount of the charge? How many days did the judges sit on that case? In whose favour did they decide?

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\* The claim of ship-money appears to have been a revival of the feudal obligation by which London and other ports were bound, as the condition on which certain privileges were held, to provide a definite number of ships at their own charge for forty (or 60) days in every year, as often as the king should require them in his wars; and the extension of the principle generally to all real property, as being required for its protection.



sure of the king, both in and out of the house of commons, until his death on the 24th of June, 1643. His remains were interred in the church of Great Hampden, in Buckinghamshire, where a stone was laid over his grave, with the effigies of himself, his wife, and his ten children.

367. *Charles crowned at Edinburgh—Affairs in Scotland.*—

Charles had not yet visited his native kingdom of Scotland. He left London for that purpose on the 13th of May, attended by Laud and a splendid retinue. He was crowned at Edinburgh on the 18th of June, and opened the Scottish parliament on the next day but one after his coronation. Large supplies were voted. He then proposed to place the Scottish clergy under the jurisdiction of bishops; to this they made great objection, but he commanded them to vote, and obtained a slight majority. Charles then returned to England, leaving Scotland greatly discontented. "The opposition which the king had met with in maintaining episcopacy among his English subjects might, one would think, have hindered him from attempting to introduce it among those of Scotland, where it was generally hateful. Driven on by Laud, who was raised to the prelacy towards the end of 1633, Charles published in 1637 an order for reading the liturgy in (St. Giles) the principal church in Edinburgh, which the people received with clamours and imprecations. The seditious disposition in that kingdom, which had hitherto been kept within bounds, was now too furious for restraint, and the insurrection became general over all the country, and the Scots flew to arms with great animosity." They then entered into an association, which was designated "the Solemn League and Covenant," to suppress the bishops, and resist the royal authority (1637). This was considered as an open declaration of war, and Charles summoned the nobility of England, who held lands of the crown, to furnish troops to suppress the confederacy. In 1639, the covenanters prepared in earnest for war. Many of their officers had acquired reputation in the German campaigns, particularly under Gustavus Adolphus; and they were invited over to assist their country in the present crisis. The command was entrusted to Lesley, a soldier of experience and ability. Forces were regularly enlisted and disciplined, and arms were imported from foreign countries. A few castles which belonged to the king, being unprovided with victuals, ammunition, and garrisons, were soon seized: and nearly the whole country being in the covenanters' hands, was soon put

367. What form of worship was hateful to the Scots? What was the result of an order for reading the liturgy in the principal church in Edinburgh?



into a tolerable posture of defence. Charles, on the other hand, was not deficient in his endeavours to oppose this formidable combination. His navy was considerable and well supplied; and having put 5000 land forces on board, he entrusted it to the marquis of Hamilton, who had orders to sail to the Frith of Forth, and cause a diversion in the forces of the malcontents. An army was levied of nearly 20,000 foot and 3000 horse, and put under the command of the earl of Arundel; the king himself joined the army, and summoned all the peers of England to attend him. The whole had the appearance of a splendid court rather than a military armament, and in this manner the camp arrived at Berwick. The Scottish army was as numerous as that of the king, but inferior in cavalry. The officers had more experience; and the soldiers, though ill-disciplined and armed, were animated by that religious enthusiasm which occasioned the war. They punctually observed the king's proclamation, not to approach within ten miles of the borders, till the earl of Holland marched into Scotland by way of Kelso, with 3000 foot and 1000 horse, and then Lesley, the Scotch general, sent a body of forces to oppose his march; upon which the earl retired. The Scots now thought they should be justified in approaching the borders, and Lesley marched towards Kelso with 12,000 men; upon which the king saw his mistake, in thinking their obedience to his proclamation was the effect of fear. He had still further reason to dislike the expedition, when his generals advised him, upon the approach of the Scots, not to give battle, though he was superior to them in numbers. In consequence of this mutual forbearance, the so-called pacification of Berwick was entered into, on June 17, in which it was stipulated, that all matters ecclesiastical should be determined by the Kirk, and civil affairs by the parliament; that a general act of oblivion should be passed; that the king should withdraw his fleet and army; that within forty-eight hours the Scots should dismiss their forces; that the king's forts should be restored to him; his authority be acknowledged; and a general assembly of the kirk and parliament be immediately summoned, in order to compose all differences (June 17th, 1639).

368. *The fourth Parliament—Is speedily dissolved, 1640.*—“Still Charles could not think of desisting from his design of establishing episcopacy in Scotland; and so prepossessed was he in favour of royal right, that he thought the very name of

367. How did Charles then act? What measures were taken by the Scots? What was the result of the appeal to arms?

368. Had Charles a correct idea of the royal prerogative?



king, when forcibly urged, would induce the Scots to return to their duty. After much altercation, and many treaties signed and broken, both parties once more determined to have recourse to arms, and nothing but blood could satisfy the contenders. The king now took every method as before for raising money to support the intended civil war. Ship-money was levied as usual; some other arbitrary taxes were exacted from the reluctant people with great severity; but these were far from being sufficient; and there now remained only one method more, the long-neglected method of parliamentary supply." Accordingly writs were issued to call a parliament, after an intermission of about eleven years. Charles opened his *fourth* parliament on the 13th of April, 1640, with this laconic and ungracious speech:—"My lords and gentlemen,—There never was a king that had a more great and weighty cause to call his people together than myself. I will not trouble you with the particulars. I have informed my lord-keeper (Finch), and commanded him to speak and desire your attention." As the sole design of the king was to obtain a supply, and the only reason the members had for attending was to procure a redress of grievances, it is not to be supposed there could be any harmony between them. The king accordingly insisted on money, and the parliament on their grievances, till a dissolution ensued on the 4th of May, the twenty-first day after its opening. The metropolis was in consternation, placards were posted up full of invectives against Strafford and Laud, calling on the apprentices to hunt 'William the fox and parliament breaker.' An attack was made the same night on his palace at Lambeth, where the mob demolished all the windows; they were however repulsed, and one of the leaders was made prisoner and executed as a traitor.

369. *The Convocation enact Canons and grant Supplies*—Although parliament was dissolved, the Convocation of the clergy\* continued to sit, but by a new commission, until the

368. With whom did he enter into a treaty? Did either of the parties intend to fulfil it? What happened before both parties had recourse to arms? How did the new house of commons regard the Scots? Why did the king dissolve the parliament? What popular manifestation was shown thereon?

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\* *Convocation*.—The assembly of the representatives of the clergy. Before the meeting of every new parliament, the king directs his writ to each archbishop—of Canterbury and of York, to summon a convocation in his peculiar province. In York the convocation consists of only one house; but in Canterbury there are two houses, of which the bishops form the *upper* house; and before the Reformation, abbots, friars, and other mitred prelates, sat with the bishops. The *lower* house of convoca-



29th of May. During that time the clergy voted seventeen canons, a sworn covenant in favour of episcopacy, by way of antagonist to the Scotch covenant, and a benevolence of four shillings in the pound for six years, to be employed in the war against the covenanters. The chief object of archbishop Laud's famous canons was to constitute the body of the clergy as a mere sort of state police. He bound down 'every parson, vicar, curate, or preacher,' to teach and preach that the maintaining of 'any independent, co-active power, either papal or *popular*,' is treason; and that 'tribute, custom, aid, and subsidy, and all manner of necessary support and supply be respectively *due to kings* from their subjects, by the Law of God, Nature, and Nations!' These canons received precisely the same sanction and authority that the canons *now in ordinary use have*. Happily, however, the clergy have no authority whatever over the laity. 'No statute or custom of the realm can be taken away or abrogated by any canon;' 'All canons against the king (as head of the State), the common law, statutes, or customs of the realm, are void' (25 H. 8, c. 19; Coke, 4 Inst. 309; 13 R. 47).

370. *Efforts made to provide Money for the Scotch war, 1640.*—After the dissolution of Charles's *fourth* parliament, the wheels of prerogative were all set in motion to provide money for the king's necessities. It was resolved in council to punish the sheriffs who were supine in raising the Ship-money assessment. The old grievance of composition for knighthood was renewed, and the king's tenants *in capite* were commanded to furnish, according to their tenures, men, horses, and arms (§ 174). A loan of 200,000*l.* was requested of the city of London. The corporation, strongly imbued

369. What were the acts of this convocation? What was the chief object of the new canons? What were the clergy ordered to preach and to teach? Are ecclesiastical canons binding on the laity?

370. Particularise the measures resorted to at this time by Charles to raise money.

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tion in the province of Canterbury consists of all deans and archdeacons, with one proctor or representative from each chapter, and two from the parochial clergy in each diocese; but in the province of York, on account of the small number of dioceses therein, each archdeaconry elects two proctors. The clergy in their attendance upon the convocation have the same privileges as members of parliament. Convocation exercises jurisdiction in making canons, with the king's assent. They have the examining and censuring of heretical and schismatical books, and persons, &c.: but appeal is to the king in chancery, or to his delegates. Convocation formerly exercised considerable spiritual power, with the right to grant or to refuse subsidies from ecclesiastical benefices. This practice of ecclesiastical taxation was discontinued in 1664, from which time the clergy have been taxed at the same rate and in the same manner with the laity. Although convocation still regularly assembles, it has not been allowed since 1717 to sit for business.



with the spirit of religious puritanism and political liberty, refused to lend; and four aldermen were committed to prison by warrant of the privy council, for refusing to give in a list of persons able to lend. But 300,000*l.* were contributed, under the name of a loan, by lords, gentlemen, and others influenced by the court or the king. A loan was extorted from the Spanish merchants, by seizing their bullion deposited in the royal mint. Charles likewise borrowed large sums from his courtiers, restricted his personal and state expenses, sold his private property, mortgaged the revenues of the crown, and enforced, so far as he could, economy and order. His conduct at this time was compared to that of Elizabeth. But Elizabeth mortgaged or sold the crown lands, the royal forests, and her jewels, *when she could not have obtained from parliament the necessary supplies even* to guard the honour and independence of the nation against a foreign enemy, without giving up one or more of her prerogatives; whereas Charles, for the same personal reasons as Elizabeth, made efforts and sacrifices calculated to impose upon England a mode of government incompatible with freedom; and upon Scotland a mode of religious worship abhorrent to the conscience of the people.

371. *The Scotch Army cross the Tyne—Council of Peers at York.*—With the money obtained, solicited, and wrung from various sources, Charles was enabled, though with great difficulty, to march his army northward, consisting of 19,000 foot and 2000 horse. The Scots, under the command of general Lesley, with lord Callender for his lieutenant, though somewhat superior, were sooner ready than the king, and marched to the borders of England. Notwithstanding their warlike preparations and hostile attempts, the covenanters still preserved the most submissive language, and entered England with no other design, they said, than to obtain access to the king's presence, and lay their humble petition at his feet. At Newbourne-upon-Tyne, within four miles of Newcastle, they were opposed by a detachment of 4500 men, under lord Conway, who seemed resolute to dispute with them the passage of the river. The Scots first entreated them, with great civility, not to stop them in their march to their gracious sovereign; and then attacked them with great bravery, killed several, and chased the rest from their ground (Aug. 28th, 1640). Such a panic thereafter seized the whole English forces, that they deserted and

370. For what purpose were these preparations made?

371. With what force did Charles march against the Scots? Where did the first hostile encounter take place? What was the result?



retreated into Yorkshire. The Scots continued to advance, and despatched messengers to the king at York, taking care, after the advantage they had gained, to redouble their expressions of loyalty, and they even made apologies full of contrition for their late victory. But Charles was in a very distressed condition, as he was obliged to subsist the Scottish army as well as his own to save the northern counties from spoliation. In this difficulty, twelve peers petitioned him to again summon a parliament. This example was followed by the lord mayor and four aldermen of York, together with about 10,000 other persons, and was presented to Charles, in spite of the efforts of his cabinet ministers, who sometime before were for the first time appointed, not only in form, but in name. To evade a prayer which grated upon his ears, Charles issued a summons to the lords spiritual and temporal to meet him in a great council of the nation at York, on the 24th of September. The mockery of reviving an obsolete institution, after the lapse of centuries, illustrates the character and government of Charles. He habitually wore upon all his actions a plausible and perfidious mask to afford a pretence of vindication. It also exhibits the king attempting to force a retrograde movement upon a people marching with giant force in advance. The triumph of the latter was inevitable. There, indeed, are few instances of a truly national struggle against domestic tyranny in which freedom has not triumphed. The historic induction affords tyrants a lesson of wisdom—or of despair. The great council of peers met, pursuant to the king's summons, in the deanery at York, on the 24th of September, 1640. The result of their deliberations was, that a settlement should be come to with the Scots, the more particularly as Newcastle could not be recovered from them, or the counties of Cumberland and Westmoreland defended against them. Charles was also advised to again summon parliament, which he assented to, and appointed the following 3rd of November for the day of meeting.

372. *The fifth Parliament, 1640.*—The efforts of the court to procure favourable returns to the new parliament signally failed. Of the king's chief and efficient servants, the two secretaries of state, Vane and Windebank, alone obtained seats. The king intended to have recommended Gardiner, recorder of London, for the speakership; but his opponents

371. What was the king now petitioned to do? How did he evade compliance? What was the general characteristic of his actions? What did the council of peers advise?

372. What was the result of the elections to this parliament?



contrived that the recorder should lose his election, not only in London, but in other places for which he tried to be returned. On the 3rd of November, 1640, Charles opened his fifth and last parliament in person. He professed to throw himself implicitly upon the affections of his subjects; stated the necessities of his service, and the sufferings of his people from the Scotch *rebels* in the north. The house of commons consumed the first week in appointing committees and receiving numerous petitions, from all parts of the kingdom, for redress of grievances and exorbitances in Church and State. This procedure will illustrate the change in the relation between the commons and the crown from the time of Elizabeth, who would have regarded a petition to the commons for redress as a high crime against her prerogative. It is surprising that changes so startling should have been lost upon the king. The pretension, under such circumstances, to govern by the maxims and practice of the house of Tudor, was infatuation. Serious blame undoubtedly also rests upon the patriot leaders of that day. They did not deal frankly with the king. Instead of their affecting to vindicate ancient liberties, which never had existed without touching the ancient prerogatives of the crown, they should have told him fairly that the English people could no longer be governed according to the maxims of prerogative, asserted by the Plantagenets and Tudors; and that the time had arrived for the course of government being based on the will of the people. Charles had summoned parliament, with the hope of obtaining a supply from the commons to drive the Scots rebels out of England; while the commons considered themselves as assembled, not to offer him advice and supply his wants, but as a supreme court of revision and redress in every branch of government. "The commons could not be induced to treat the Scots, who were of the same principles with themselves, and contending against the same ceremonies, as enemies to the State. They regarded them as friends and brothers, who first rose to teach them a duty it was incumbent on all virtuous minds to imitate. The king, therefore, could reap no other fruits from this assembly than murmurings, complaints, and indignities. Every method he had taken to supply himself with money was declared an abuse, and a breach of the constitution." The commons at this time even voted 300,000*l.* 'for

372. What were Charles's professions in his opening speech? How did the commons act? For what purpose was this parliament summoned? For what did the commons consider themselves assembled? How did they act towards the Scots?



the friendly aid and relief, and towards the losses and necessities, of their dear brethren the Scots' (Feb., 1641). When the parliament thus subsidised as brethren those whom the king proclaimed rebels, and refused to entrust him with any supplies whatever, Charles was already deposed, and the state of England republican.

373. *Trial of Strafford—His Execution, 1641.*—One great experiment remained to be made upon the virtue and the power of Charles—the impeachment of Strafford, his ablest minister. Strafford was with the army in the north when his friends apprised him of the gathering storm. They counselled him against the hazard of appearing in his place as a peer. But his resolution was already formed. It was his first purpose to remain with the army, lest his presence in parliament should prove injurious, not useful, to the king. Charles said he could not dispense with the services of his ablest councillor, and declared that, 'whilst he was king of England, the parliament should not touch a hair of the head of Strafford.' The earl persisted in his view, but the king was immovable, and commanded his attendance. On the very day that he arrived from the north, he was impeached of high treason by the commons, at the bar of the house of lords, and the same night lodged in the Tower (Nov. 11). Thus, in one day, in one hour, Strafford, 'the great apostate,' as he was called in the house of commons and by the people, from being named with awe and fear, fell from the height of his pride and power. The impeachment consisted of twenty-eight articles, and embraced fourteen years of his life. The three most substantial treasons charged against him were: 1. Imposing a tax of his own authority upon the inhabitants of Yorkshire; 2. Exacting arbitrary taxes, by quartering soldiers in Ireland, against the laws of that kingdom, and the king's sovereignty; and, 3, Raising an army in Ireland for the purpose of subverting the fundamental laws of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and to introduce arbitrary and tyrannical government. The impeachment for treason was opened on the 23rd of March, in Westminster-hall, which was chosen for the stage of this great spectacle. Strafford defended himself from day to day with such consummate ability that the commons abandoned the impeachment for treason, and proceeded against him by

372. What did this virtually amount to?

373. When warned of his danger, why did Strafford go up to London? What did the king declare for his safety? When was Strafford arrested? Of what was he impeached? How many charges were produced against him, and what were the principal?



a bill of attainder, which was read a first time on the 13th of April, and passed on the 21st. To prevent the escape of Strafford by the king's dissolving parliament, a bill was drawn *that parliament should be indissoluble without its own consent*, which revolutionary measure passed through both houses in three days. Meanwhile the bill of attainder proceeded against Strafford in the house of lords. The lords voted that certain articles were proved, and desired the opinion of the judges, whether he was thereby guilty of high treason. They replied with scandalous unanimity in the affirmative. The judicial order at this period was so utterly debased, so governed by corruption or by fear, that this opinion is of no value in estimating Strafford, his accusers, or the peers. The bill abrogating the king's prerogative to dissolve parliament, and that for attainting Strafford, passed the house of lords the same day (May 7th). "Nothing remained but for the king to give his consent to the bill of attainder. Charles, who loved Strafford tenderly, hesitated, and seemed reluctant, trying every expedient to put off so dreadful a duty as that of signing the warrant for his execution. While he continued in this agitation of mind, not knowing how to act, his doubts were at last silenced by an act of heroic bravery in the condemned lord. He received a letter from that unfortunate nobleman, desiring that his life might be made the sacrifice of a mutual reconciliation between the king and his people; adding that he was prepared to die, and to a willing mind there could be no injury. This instance of noble generosity was but ill repaid by his master, who complied with his request. He consented to the signing the fatal bill by commission: Strafford was beheaded on Tower-hill, behaving with all that dignity of resolution that was expected from his character" (May 12th, 1641).

374. *Irish Rebellion and Massacre, 1641.*—"In the midst of these troubles, the papists of Ireland fancied they found a convenient opportunity of throwing off the English yoke. They accordingly resolved to cut off all the protestants in the island at a stroke, sparing neither age, sex, nor condition. The insurrection broke out at Dublin in October, and spread rapidly over the country. Forty thousand protestants were supposed to have been killed in this massacre. In such in-

373. What measure was adopted to insure his condemnation? How did the king act? What was the nature of the letter written to him by Strafford? How did the earl meet his fate?

374. Of these domestic troubles what cruel advantage was taken by the Irish papists?



discriminate slaughter, neither former benefits, nor alliances, nor authority, were any protection; numberless were the instances of friends murdering their intimates, relations their kinsmen, and servants their masters. In vain did flight save from the first assault; destruction, that had an extensive spread, met the haunted victims at every turn. The insurrection might at first have been easily subdued; but the king's deputies in Ireland, eager to make their fortunes by trading in confiscations, averred that all the Catholics in the kingdom were involved in the guilt of this rebellion, and by wicked arts changed the local disturbance into a general civil war. Many wanton murders were committed on both sides; religious zeal added bitterness to political animosity; the hatred of heresy by one party, and of popery by the other, led men to perpetrate and palliate crimes shocking to human nature. The war lasted several years; four hostile parties had armies in Ireland, the native Irish, the descendants of the early settlers, usually called 'the Lords of the Pale,' the royalists, and the puritans who supported the supremacy of the English parliament. The last party, though infinitely the weakest, finally triumphed, by taking advantage of the dissensions and errors of the other three. Charles, aware that he was already suspected of a secret attachment to popery, and that the northern Irish pretended to have his authority for taking up arms, used every means in his power to put down the rebellion. But he was no longer able to effect this desirable object: the native Irish and the lords of the Pale, frequently deceived before, would not trust the royal promises; Parsons and Borlase, the lords justices of Ireland, refused to obey the king's commands; and the English parliament gladly used the Irish war as a pretext for levying soldiers; for every one now clearly foresaw that the disputes between the king and the parliament must finally be decided by the sword."

375. *Bishops impeached—They withdraw from Parliament.*—"The massacre in Ireland, chiefly of the presbyterian colonists in Ulster, greatly exasperated the English puritans, who clamoured against the episcopalians and demanded renewed security against the Roman catholics. The opposition began their operations by a resolution to attack episcopacy, which was one of the strongest bulwarks of the royal power." Every.

374. What insinuations were thrown out against Charles I.?

375. What was the effect produced in England by the massacres in Ireland? How did the commons proceed?



thing, in short, portended a collision. Riotous mobs gathered round the houses of parliament, and offered violence to several members of the house of peers, but particularly to the bishops. The Archbishop of York was among those roughly treated by the mob: irritated by personal outrage, or influenced by his newly-attained dignity, he acted with a rashness wholly alien to his character, and fatal for the time to his order. He, and twelve other prelates at his instigation, addressed to the king a petition, in which they declared that they could not attend in their places without peril to their lives, and protested against all proceedings whatever in the house of peers in their absence. This monstrous pretension to suspend the functions of one branch of the legislature, was resented by the peers as an invasion of their privileges, which they made known by a message to the house of commons: a conference followed, and the result was, that the thirteen bishops were impeached by the commons of high treason, for enacting canons without the consent of parliament (§ 369); and the commons, at the same time, endeavoured to prevail upon the house of peers to exclude all the prelates. The thirteen prelates appeared on the 30th of December as culprits on their knees at the bar of the house of peers, and, with the exception of two, who, in consideration of their advanced years remained in charge of the usher of the black rod, were committed to the Tower (Dec. 30, 1641). Clarendon says of them, that they were not traitors, but madmen. The bishops saw the storm which was gathering against them; and, probably to avert its effects, they resolved to attend their duty in the house of lords no longer. This procedure of the bishops was a fatal blow to the royal interest, which soon suffered a much greater from the king's own imprudence.

376. *Charles's Infatuation.*—In consequence of the Irish rebellion the parliament levied money, ostensibly for the purpose of suppressing it; but having thus strengthened themselves with the means of resistance, they stored it up for the conflict which now inevitably impended. And Charles himself, still untaught by the signs of the times, accelerated that fatal crisis by an act of almost incredible infatuation,—“having given orders to the attorney-general to enter an accusation of high treason in the house of peers against lord Kimbolton, one of the most popular men of

375. How was the public discontent exhibited? Of what were the bishops accused? How did they act thereon? Did their procedure serve the king?

376 Of what imprudent act was the king guilty?



his party, together with five commoners—Sir Arthur Haselrig, Hollis, Hampden, Pym, and Strode. The articles were, that they had traitorously endeavoured to subvert the fundamental laws and government of the kingdom; to deprive the king of his regal power, and to impose on his subjects an arbitrary and tyrannical authority. Men had scarcely leisure to wonder at the precipitancy and imprudence of this impeachment, when they were astonished by another measure, still more rash and unsupported. The next day the king himself was seen to enter the house of commons alone, advancing through the hall, while all the members stood up to receive him. The speaker withdrew from the chair, and the king took possession of it. Having seated himself, and having looked round for some time, he told the house that he was sorry for the occasion that had forced him thither; that he was come in person to seize the members whom he had accused of high treason, seeing they would not deliver them up to his serjeant-at-arms. He then sat down for some time, to see if the accused were present, but they had escaped a few minutes before his entry. Disappointed, perplexed, and not knowing on whom to rely, the king next proceeded, amidst the clamours of the populace, who continued to cry out ‘Privilege! Privilege!’ to the common-council of the city, and made his complaints to them. The common-council only answered his complaints with a contemptuous silence; and on his return, one of the populace, more insolent than the rest, cried out, ‘To your tents, O Israel!’ a watch-word among the Jews, when they intended to abandon their princes. On his return to Windsor, Charles began to reflect on the rashness of his former proceedings, and now, too late, resolved to make some atonement. He, therefore, wrote to the parliament, informing them that he desisted from his former proceedings against the accused members; and assured them that upon all occasions he would be as careful of their privileges as of his life or his crown. Thus his violence had rendered him hateful to his commons, and his present submission rendered him contemptible” (Jan., 1642).

377. *Concessions of Charles now unavailing.*—“It was now that the republican spirit began to appear, without any disguise, in the present parliament; and that party, instead of

376. Why did the king enter the house of commons? What was the cry of the populace as he returned from the house of commons? How did the common-council receive his complaint? What was the nature of the letter he afterwards wrote to parliament, and what its effect?

377. What spirit now openly appeared in parliament?



attacking the faults of the king, resolved to destroy monarchy. Every compliance, at last, only increased their eagerness to make fresh demands: the commons having now first magnified their terrors of popery, which perhaps they actually dreaded, they proceeded to petition that the Tower might be put into their hands, and that Hull, Portsmouth, and the fleet should be intrusted to persons of their choosing. These were requests, the complying with which levelled nearly all that remained of the ancient constitution: however, such was the necessity of the times, that they were at first contested, and then granted. The power of appointing generals and levying armies was still a remaining prerogative of the crown: this the commons next desired to possess, urging their wish to have a militia, raised and governed by such officers and commanders as they should nominate, under pretext of securing them from the Irish papists, of whom they professed to be in great apprehensions. Charles now ventured to put a stop to his concessions, and being urged to give up the command of the army for an appointed time, he was so exasperated, that he exclaimed 'No, not for an hour!' This peremptory refusal broke off all further treaty, and both sides were resolved to have recourse to arms" (Feb 28, 1642).

378. *The royal Standard set up at Nottingham.*—Both parties now began in earnest to prepare for war, while each was anxious to avoid the blame of having commenced it. This, however, was at last incurred by the king. 'His towns,' he said, 'were taken from him; his ships, his army, and his money: but there still remained to him a good cause, and the hearts of his loyal subjects; which, with God's blessing, he doubted not would recover all the rest.' Collecting, therefore, some forces, he advanced into the midland counties, and erected his royal standard at Nottingham, on the 25th of August, 1642. "The king's forces were then in a very low condition; besides the train-bands of the county, raised by Sir John Digby, the sheriff, he had not brought together three hundred infantry. His cavalry, which composed his chief strength, exceeded not eight hundred, and were very ill provided with arms. However, he was soon gradually re-inforced from all quarters; but not being then in a condition to face his enemies, he thought it prudent to retire by slow marches to Derby, and thence to Shrewsbury, in order to

377. On what were the republicans resolved? What demands were made by them? Were they conceded? What did the king peremptorily refuse?

378. Who first raised the standard of civil war? What was the amount of his forces? Where did he proceed to?



countenance the levies which his friends were making in those quarters "

379. *The Parliament preparations for War.*—No period since England began could show so many instances of courage, abilities, and virtue, as the present fatal opposition called forth into exertion. Now was the time when talent of all kinds, unchecked by authority, was called from the lower ranks of life to dispute for power and pre-eminence. Manifestoes on the one side and the other were now dispersed throughout the whole kingdom; and the people were universally divided between two factions, distinguished by the names of Cavaliers and Roundheads. In the meantime, the parliament was not remiss in preparations on their side. They had a magazine of arms at Hull, and Sir John Hotham was appointed governor of that place. The forces also, which had been everywhere raised on pretence of service in Ireland, were now more openly enlisted by the parliament for their own purposes, and the command-in-chief of all their forces was given to the earl of Essex, a bold man, who rather desired to see monarchy abridged than totally destroyed; and in London no less than four thousand men were enlisted in one day. In a short time the parliamentary army was ordered to march to Northampton; and the earl of Essex, on joining it, found the whole to amount to 15,000 men.

380. *Commencement of the Civil War: first Campaign, 1642-3.*—While Charles lay at Shrewsbury, he received the news of the first action that happened in this war—an encounter near Worcester, and in which his party was victorious. "But Edgehill, near Keynton, in Warwickshire, was the first place where the two armies were put in array against each other, and the country drenched in civil slaughter. It was a dreadful sight to see above thirty thousand of the bravest men in the world, instead of employing their courage abroad, turning it against each other, while the dearest friends, and nearest kinsmen, embraced opposite sides, and prepared to bury their private regards in factious hatred. After an engagement of some hours, animosity seemed to be wearied out, and both sides separated with equal loss. 5000 men are said to have been found dead on the field of battle (Oct. 23rd, 1642). It would be tedious, and no way instructive to enter into the marchings and counter-marchings of these undisciplined and ill-conducted armies: war was a new trade to the English, as they had not seen a hostile engagement in the island for near

379. By what names were the royal and parliamentary parties called? To whom was the command of the parliamentary army given?

380. Where did the two hostile armies first meet, and on what day?



a century before. The queen came to reinforce the royal party; she had brought soldiers and ammunition from Holland, and immediately departed to procure more. But the parliament, who knew its own consequence and strength, was no way discouraged. Their demands seemed to increase in proportion to their losses; and, as they were repressed in the field, they grew more haughty in the cabinet. Such governors as gave up their fortresses to the king, were attainted of high treason. It was in vain for the king to send proposals after any success; this only raised their pride and their animosity. But though this desire in the king to make peace with his subjects was the highest encomium on his humanity, yet his long negotiations, one of which he carried on at Oxford, were faulty as a warrior. He wasted that time in altercation and treaty, which he should have employed in vigorous exertions in the field. His first campaign, however, upon the whole, wore a favourable aspect. One victory followed after another: Cornwall was reduced to peace and obedience under the king; a victory was gained over the parliamentarians at Stratton-hill, in Devonshire; another at Roundway Down, about two miles from Devizes; and a third at Chalgrave-field, near Thame, in which John Hampden was mortally wounded (June, 1643). Bristol was besieged and taken, and Gloucester was invested; the battle of Newbury was favourable to the royal cause (Sept. 20); and great hopes of success were formed from an army in the north, raised by the marquis of Newcastle. In this first campaign, the two bravest and greatest men of their respective parties were killed; as if it were intended, by the kindness of Providence, that they should be exempted from seeing the miseries and the slaughter which were shortly to ensue: these were John Hampden and lord Falkland.\*

380. From what country did the queen return, and what did she bring along with her? What part of the king's conduct was creditable to him as a man and injurious to him as a soldier? How did he waste his time, and how ought it to have been employed? In the first campaign what victories did the king gain, and on what days? Who fell in the battle at Newbury? What was the character of lord Falkland?

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\* "Lucius Cary, lord Falkland, was even a greater loss to the royalists than Hampden to the parliamentarians. To Hampden's severe principles, he added a politeness and elegance but then beginning to be known in England. He had boldly withstood the king's pretensions, while he saw him making a bad use of his power; but when he perceived the design of the parliament to overturn the religion and the constitution of his country, he changed his side, and stedfastly attached himself to the crown. From the beginning of the civil war, his natural cheerfulness and vivacity forsook him; he became melancholy, sad, pale, and negligent of his person, and seemed to



381. *Preparations for the second Campaign.*—"The king, that he might make preparations during the winter for the next campaign, and to oppose the designs of the Westminster parliament, called one at Oxford (Jan., 1644); and this was the first time that England saw two parliaments sitting at the same time. His house of peers was pretty full; his house of commons consisted of about a hundred and forty, which amounted to not above half of the other house of commons. From this shadow of a parliament he received some supplies, after which it was prorogued, and never after assembled. The parliament, in the meantime, were equally active on their side. They passed an ordinance, commanding all the inhabitants of London and its neighbourhood to retrench a meal a week, and to pay the value of it for the support of the public cause. But what was much more effectual, the Scots, who considered their claims as similar, sent general Lesley (now lord Leven) with 12,000 horse and foot to their assistance (Jan., 1644). The parliament assembled an army of 14,000 men, under the earl of Manchester; they had a second army of 10,000 men under Essex, and another, of nearly the same force, under Sir William Waller. These were superior to any force the king could bring into the field; and were well appointed with ammunition, provisions, and pay."

382. *Second Campaign—The Royalists routed at Marston-Moor.*—"Hostilities, which even during the winter season had never been wholly discontinued, were renewed in spring with their usual fury, and served to desolate the kingdom, without deciding victory. Each county joined that side to which it was addicted from motives of conviction, interest, or fear, though some observed a perfect neutrality. Several frequently petitioned for peace; and all the wise and good were earnest in the cry. What particularly deserves remark, was an attempt of the women of London, who, to the number of two or three thousand, went in a body to the house of commons, earnestly demanding a peace. 'Give us those traitors,' said they, 'that are against a peace; give them, that we may tear them to pieces.' The guards found some difficulty in

381. When did England see two parliaments sitting at the same time, and at what places? Who joined the republican party?

382. Relate the conduct of the women in London.

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wish for death. His usual cry among his friends, after a deep silence, and frequent sighs, was, 'Peace! Peace!' He now said, upon the morning of the engagement, that he was weary of the times, and should leave them before night. He was shot by a musket-ball in the belly; and his body was next morning found among a heap of slain. His writings, his elegance, his justice, and his courage, deserved such a death of glory; and they found it."—GOLDSMITH.



quelling this insurrection, and one or two women lost their lives in the fray." Meanwhile the Scotch army united with the parliamentarians under Fairfax, in Yorkshire, when investing York, which held out for the king. The royalist armies under the marquis of Newcastle hastened to its relief; but the scale was soon turned by the coming up of the parliamentary forces under the earl of Manchester, with Cromwell for his lieutenant and commander of the cavalry. The royalists, on being joined by the division under prince Rupert, in turn became the strongest, which obliged the parliamentarians to withdraw to Marston-moor. They were followed by prince Rupert, who imprudently forced on a general action without the least preparation for it. The conflict commenced at seven in the afternoon of the 3rd of July, 1644. There were about 50,000 combatants on each side. "The victory seemed long undecided between them. Rupert, who commanded the right wing of the royalists, was opposed by Oliver Cromwell, who now first came into notice, at the head of a body of troops whom he had taken care to levy and discipline. Cromwell was victorious; he pushed his opponents off the field, followed the vanquished, returned to a second engagement, and a second victory; the prince's whole train of artillery was taken, and the royalists never after recovered the blow."

383. *Oliver Cromwell, his Descent and Rise.*—As Oliver Cromwell will henceforth become the prominent character in the revolutionary drama, it is desirable briefly to sketch his previous career. He was born at Huntingdon, in the year 1599, and was descended from an ancient family of Welsh extraction, originally of the name of Williams; but one of his ancestors marrying the sister of Cromwell, earl of Essex (§ 298), a son by that marriage assumed his mother's maiden name, and transmitted it to his son Sir Henry Cromwell of Hinchinbrooke, grandfather to Oliver. Mr. Robert Cromwell, his father, was the second son of Sir Henry; and his mother was the daughter of Sir Richard Stewart, of the isle of Ely. At the age of seventeen, Cromwell was sent to Sidney college in Cambridge; but without reference to any particular profession. His father being a younger brother he supplemented his patrimonial estate by the profits of a brewery. This was the situation of the family, when Mr. Cromwell the father died, about two years after his son had been at the university, upon which event he was called home by his mother; but

382. What battle was fatal to the royal cause, and when was it fought? Who particularly distinguished himself in this battle?

383. From whom was Cromwell descended?



the irregularity of his conduct giving her great uneasiness, she was advised to bring him up to the law, and, in consequence, she sent him to Lincoln's-inn. However, as she continued her business, this short residence at home furnished an opportunity to the cavaliers to style him contemptuously a brewer, and the son of a brewer. On being bequeathed an estate worth five hundred pounds per annum, by Sir Richard Stewart, his maternal uncle, Cromwell retired into the country, and became as sober and religious as he had formerly been extravagant. For some time he was a devout member of the church of England; but, upon paying his addresses to Elizabeth, the daughter of Sir James Bouchier, of Essex, whom he afterwards married, he became acquainted with some eminent puritan ministers and gentlemen. His wife being of that persuasion, he was soon prevailed upon to adhere to their party, now growing very powerful; and by their interest, he was elected to serve in the third parliament of Charles I., which met on the 17th day of March, 1628. He was also returned for his fourth and fifth parliament, in which his speeches were frequent, and his warmth and activity in opposition to the measures of the court were remarkably conspicuous. Nor was he less zealous in promoting petitions against the bishops, for their severe prosecutions and inhuman punishments in the ecclesiastical courts. He had likewise a principal share in the remonstrance upon the state of the nation, in which the enormities of the king's government were strongly pointed out. This remonstrance was carried. At length, when the dissensions between the king and the parliament came to an open rupture, Cromwell exhibited himself in a new character. At more than forty years of age, he accepted a captain's commission from the commons, and immediately raised a troop of horse in the country (Aug., 1643); and, both in the choice of his men, and his manner in disciplining them, he displayed uncommon military genius. His men were remarkable for their sobriety, industry, and bravery; they were most of them the sons of freeholders, who were taught to believe that they were fighting for the defence of their own property; and being religiously disposed, they acted upon principles of conscience. Such soldiers could not fail of subduing common mercenaries, who fight only for pay—and therefore, whenever they engaged them, they were victorious. His first military exploit of any consequence, was his securing the town of Cambridge for the parliament, and stopping the university

383. What is said of Cromwell's early life? How old was he when he became a soldier?



plate, ready packed up to be sent to the king. Not long after, he seized Sir Thomas Connesby, high sheriff of Hertfordshire, on the road to St. Alban's, where he was going to proclaim the parliament officers traitors. For these services he received the thanks of the house, and was promoted to the rank of colonel. He then enlarged his plan of operations, and, by the strength of his increasing interest, soon raised a regiment of 1000 horse, with which he prevented the exertions of recruiting parties of the royalists in several counties; and, by his activity and success, recommended himself to further promotion. He was next appointed lieutenant-general under the earl of Manchester; and, having raised a great force of such as came freely to him, he speedily was enabled to render very effective services, as at Newark, where he made a night attack on the garrison and rescued captain Wray's troop, which had been captured by it; in routing twenty-four troops of the king's horse and dragoons near Grantham, with only seven troops of his redoubtable "Ironsides," as his troopers came to be called; in routing the royalist cavalry at Gainsborough, killing lieutenant-general Cavendish with many of his officers, and then retreating that night in good order to Lincoln, followed by the royalist army under the earl of Newcastle. Lincoln not being defensible, Cromwell marched the next day to Boston, to join the earl of Manchester, who, with his new raised forces, had reduced Lynn under the power of the parliament. To prevent this junction, Newcastle advanced with his army, and detached a strong party of horse and dragoons towards Boston, commanded by Sir John Henderson, an old soldier, who, understanding that Cromwell was drawn out before him with the horse and dragoons, made haste to engage, before the earl of Manchester, with the foot, could come up. A furious battle then ensued, at a place called Winsby-field, near Horncastle. In the first shock Cromwell's horse was killed and fell upon him, and as he rose he was again knocked down by the gentleman that charged him. He never was in more danger in his life; but with difficulty he got remounted on a poor horse by a soldier, when he charged the enemy with great resolution. The encounter was very sharp, but lasted not an hour before the royalists were entirely routed by Manchester's troops, about 1500 of them being killed, among whom were lord Widdrington, Sir Ingram Hopton, and other persons of quality. Very few were killed on the parliament side. The routed forces were pursued as far as Lincoln, which was next taken by storm (1644). Manchester, with Cromwell



as his lieutenant-general and commander of the cavalry, thereafter hastened with their forces to join Fairfax and Leven before York, which was closely besieged by the royalist forces. That town, though vigorously defended by the marquis of Newcastle, was reduced to the last extremity, when prince Rupert, having joined Sir Charles Lucas, who commanded Newcastle's horse, hastened to its relief with an army of 18,000 men. The Scots and parliamentary generals then being obliged to raise the siege, they fell back upon Marston-moor, where they were attacked by the royalists, with results as before particularised.

384. *Execution of Primate Laud: his Character.*—"William Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who had been impeached for high treason and sent to the Tower in December 1640, was now brought to his trial, condemned, and executed on the 10th of January, 1645. It was a melancholy consideration, that, in those times of trouble, the most eminent men on either side were those who chiefly suffered. The death of Laud was followed by a total alteration of the ceremonies of the church. The Liturgy was, by a public act, abolished the day on which he died, as if he had been the only obstacle to its former removal. The church of England was, in all respects, brought to a conformity to the puritanical establishment; while the citizens of London, and the Scottish army, gave public thanks for so happy an alteration." Of all the prelates of the Anglican church, Laud had departed furthest from the principles of the Reformation, and had drawn nearest to Rome. Though he would not probably have chosen that England should have been again brought into subjection to the Pope, he appeared most desirous of being himself the sovereign patriarch of three kingdoms. His passion for ceremonies, his reverence for holidays, vigils, and sacred places; his ill-concealed dislike of the marriage of ecclesiastics; the ardent and not altogether disinterested zeal with which he asserted the claims of the clergy to the reverence of the laity, would have made him an object of aversion to the Puritans, even if he had used only legal and gentle means for the attainment of his ends. But his understanding was narrow, and he was by nature rash, irritable, quick to feel for his own dignity, slow to sympathise with the sufferings of others. Under his direction every corner of the realm was subjected to a constant and minute

384. When was Laud sent to the Tower? When executed? What was his character? What appeared to be the aim of his ecclesiastical measures?



inspection. Every little congregation of separatists was tracked out and broken up; even the devotions of private families could not escape the vigilance of his spies. Such fear did his rigour inspire that the deadly hatred of the church, which festered in innumerable bosoms, was generally disguised under an outward show of conformity. On the very eve of troubles, fatal to himself and his order, the bishops of several extensive dioceses were able to report to him, in 1639 that not a single dissenter was to be found within their jurisdiction.

385. *Parliamentary Army remodelled—Fairfax General-in-Chief.* — The decisive battle of Marston Moor established Cromwell's military reputation in such a manner that he was ever after dreaded by the royalists. He now therefore became the general subject of conversation, and the eyes of all men were fixed upon him; but he was greatly envied, especially by the earls of Essex and of Manchester, the latter having even vowed his destruction for having accused him of cowardice. Yet such was the general good opinion conceived of Cromwell by the parliament and the people, that he soon perceived his own strength, and retaliated upon his opponents by complaining of the misconduct of the war, which he imputed to the venality of the commanders, who wanted to protract it for their own interest. In consequence of this, it was resolved to new model the army, and to pass an ordinance, called the self-denying ordinance, by which all members of parliament were excluded from civil and military employments, whereby the earls of Essex and of Manchester, with several other general officers, were dismissed. Sir Thomas Fairfax was now appointed commander-in-chief of all the parliamentary forces; and, by a strange evasion of their own law, Oliver Cromwell's service in the house was dispensed with, that he might act under Fairfax, to whom he was appointed lieutenant-general of the horse. Cromwell did not remain a single day inactive. He made haste to re-organise the whole army, on the principles on which he had organised his own regiment. As soon as this process was completed, the event of the war was decided. The cavaliers had now to encounter natural courage equal to their own, enthusiasm stronger than their own, and discipline such as was utterly wanting to them. It soon became a proverb that the soldiers of Fairfax and Crom-

384. How did he treat the separatists from the church?

385. What led to the remodelment of the parliamentary army? Who were excluded by the self-denying ordinance from serving in it? Who was then appointed to the command-in-chief? Who acted as his lieutenant-general?



well were men of a different breed from the soldiers of Essex. It is observed by all the historians of the civil war, that though Fairfax had the chief command in title and appearance, Cromwell had such an ascendancy over him, that he was, in fact, the acting commander. Fairfax had great personal valour, and was indefatigably diligent, but he wanted genius and foresight; he could execute without thought, but he could not form regular plans of operation; nothing, therefore, could be more fortunate for the parliament than the strict union and friendship which subsisted between these two great men; and so sensible were the royalists of their combined abilities, that they made several attempts to create a misunderstanding and to divide them, but in vain.

386. *Battle of Naseby—Charles surrenders to the Scots, 1645.*—At the commencement of the third campaign, Charles had his head-quarters at Oxford, the centre of the kingdom, with a preponderance in the midland counties; had almost the entire command of the western districts; had some places in the north; and had undisputed authority in Wales. The first operation of Fairfax was for the relief of Taunton, then courageously defended by Blake, afterwards so celebrated as an admiral. In the first action after the new modelment of the army, victory declared for the royalists under prince Rupert, who routed the parliamentary forces at Ledbury (April 21). After this the council of war, upon the recommendation of Fairfax, reappointed Cromwell to the command of the cavalry, in violation of their “self-denying ordinance.” Cromwell had arrived at head-quarters to take leave of Fairfax and of the army, when the order of the council was received. He thereon set out with a body of horse to watch the movements of prince Rupert; and on the third day after the disaster at Ledbury defeated a brigade of the king’s horse at Islip Bridge, near Oxford (April 24). A few days after, he compelled the royalist garrison in Blechington-house to surrender; which so exasperated prince Rupert that he caused the commandant, colonel Windsbank on being declared guilty of cowardice by a court-martial, to be shot at Oxford, even in the absence of the king (May 3). These operations were the prelude to the first great encounter between the royalists and the remodelled parliamentarians. On the twentieth day after Cromwell resumed the command of the cavalry, there was fought at Naseby, a village in Northamptonshire, the well

385. In what did these generals differ?

386. Where were Charles’s head-quarters at the opening of the third campaign? Who triumphed in the first encounter? By whom was success restored to the parliamentarians?



disputed battle which decided the fate of Charles (June 14, 1645). On that occasion "the main body of the royal army was commanded by lord Astley, prince Rupert led the right wing, Sir Marmaduke Langdale the left, and the king himself headed the body of reserve. On the opposite side, Fairfax and Skippon commanded the main body, Cromwell led on the right wing, and Ireton, his son-in-law, the left. Prince Rupert attacked the left wing with his usual impetuosity and success; they were broke, and pursued as far as the village; but he lost time in attempting to make himself master of their artillery. Cromwell, in the meantime, was equally successful on his side, and broke through the enemy's horse after a very obstinate resistance. While these were thus engaged, the infantry on both sides maintained the conflict with equal ardour; but in spite of the efforts of Fairfax and Skippon, their battalions began to give way. At this critical moment, Cromwell returned with his victorious forces, and charged the king's infantry in flank with such vigour, that a total rout began to ensue. By this time prince Rupert had rejoined the king, and the small body of reserve; but his troops, though victorious, could not be brought to a second charge. The king perceiving the battle wholly lost, was obliged to abandon the field to his enemies, who took all his cannon, baggage, the cabinet containing his private papers and correspondence with the queen, and above 50,000 prisoners, of whom 1000 were officers. This decisive victory put the parliamentarians in possession of almost all the strong cities of the kingdom, Bristol, Bridgewater, Chester, Sherborn, and Bath. Exeter was besieged; and all the king's troops in the western counties being entirely dispersed, Fairfax pressed the place, and it surrendered at discretion (March, 1646). The king thus surrounded, harassed on every side, retreated to Oxford, that, in all conditions of his fortune, had held steady to his cause; and there he resolved to offer new terms to his incensed pursuers. Meanwhile, Fairfax was approaching with a powerful and victorious army, and was taking the proper measures for laying siege to Oxford, which promised an easy surrender. To be taken captive, and led in triumph by his insolent subjects, was what Charles justly abhorred; and every insult and violence was to be dreaded from the soldiery, who had felt the effects of his opposition. In this desperate extremity, he embraced a measure which,

386. Where was the fate of Charles decided? Who commanded the royal army? and the republican? What did this victory put in the possession of the republicans?



in any other situation, might justly lie under the imputation of imprudence and indiscretion. He took the fatal resolution of giving himself up to the Scots, who had never testified such implacable animosity against him, and privately arrived at their army which then lay at Newark (May 5); but he too soon found, that, instead of treating him as a king, they insulted him as a captive. The English parliament, on being informed of the king's captivity, immediately entered into a treaty with the Scots about delivering up their prisoner. This was soon adjusted. They agreed, that, upon payment of 400,000*l.* of their arrears, they would deliver up the king to his enemies, and this was cheerfully complied with. An action so atrocious may be palliated, but can never be defended; they returned home laden with plunder, and the reproaches of all good men" (Jan. 30th, 1646).

387. *Dissensions in Parliament—The Military Agitators.*—"The civil war was now over; the king had absolved his followers from their allegiance, and the parliament had now no enemy to fear, except those very troops by which they had extended their overgrown authority. But in proportion as the terror of the king's power diminished, the divisions between the members which composed the parliament became more apparent. The majority in the house of commons were of the presbyterian sect, who were for having clergy; but the minority in the house and the majority of the army were staunch independents, who admitted of no clergy, but thought that every man had a right to instruct his fellows. At the head of this sect was Cromwell, who secretly directed its operations, and invigorated all their measures." On his obtaining positive information that the presbyterian majority intended to disband part of the army, particularly some of the Independent regiments, and to send others over to Ireland, Cromwell sent colonel Ireton, his son-in-law, to insinuate to the whole army that the parliament intended to disband them without paying their arrears, or else consume them in Ireland with sickness and famine. This so exasperated the soldiers, that when the order arrived for disbanding some and transporting others, they refused to obey. "The army now began to consider themselves as a body distinct from the Commonwealth; and complained, that they had secured the general tranquillity, while they were at the same time deprived

386. Why did Charles give himself up to the Scottish army? Relate the scandalous and detestable conduct of the Scots to their king.

387. After the king had been sold by the Scots to the English army what had the parliament to fear? Of what sect was the majority in parliament and of the army? How did the army now consider itself?



of the privileges of Englishmen. In opposition, therefore, to the parliament of Westminster, a military parliament was formed, composed of the officers and common soldiers of each regiment. The principal officers formed a council to represent the body of peers; the soldiers elected two men out of each company to represent the house of commons, and these were called the *agitators* of the army. Cromwell took care to be one of the number, and thus contrived an easy method of conducting and promoting the sedition of the army." The council and the agitators met separately; but communicating their resolves to each other, they were in the end unanimous in declaring, 'That they would not be disbanded till their full arrears were paid, and till full provision was made for liberty of conscience, which had been hitherto little secured.' They added, 'That as they had voluntarily taken up arms for the liberty and defence of the nation, of which they were a part, before they laid down those arms they would see all those ends provided for.' This declaration was delivered at the bar of the house by a committee of the army council. And it is generally allowed that this timely political manœuvre not only saved Cromwell from an intended impeachment by Denzil, lord Holles, but laid the foundation of his future power.

388. *Cromwell causes the Seizure of the King—The Commons coerced, 1647.*—"The unhappy king, in the mean time, continued a prisoner at Holmby castle, in Northamptonshire; and as his countenance might add some authority to that side which should obtain it, Cromwell, who secretly conducted all the measures of the army, while he apparently exclaimed against their violence, resolved to seize the king's person. Accordingly, a party of 500 horse appeared at Holmby castle, under the command of cornet Joyce, and conducted the king to the army, who were hastening to their rendezvous at Triplo-w-heath, near Cambridge (June 4). The next day Cromwell arrived among them, where he was received with acclamations of joy, and was instantly invested with the supreme command." Cromwell now threw off the mask, set the house of commons at defiance, and boasted among his friends, "that by having the king in his hands, he had the parliament in his pocket." His majesty was removed to his palace at Newmarket, where he continued to be treated with

387. Of what did the military parliament consist?

388. Who publicly exclaimed against the conduct of the army and privately encouraged it? On what had Cromwell resolved, and how did he accomplish it? What was the state of the house of commons?



all due honour and respect (June 8, 1647). Alarmed at the king being in the power of the army, the parliament began, when too late, to show a resolute and active conduct; whereon the Independent minority, "the speakers of both houses (Lenthall and the earl of Manchester), with sixty-two members, secretly retired from the house, and threw themselves under the protection of the army, which was then at Hounslow-heath (July, 1647). They were received with shouts and acclamations, their integrity was extolled, and the whole body of the soldiery, a formidable force of 20,000 men, now moved forward to reinstate them in their former seats and stations. In the meantime, that part of the house which was left behind, resolved to act with vigour, and resist the encroachments of the army. They chose new speakers, they gave orders for enlisting troops, they ordered the train-bands of London to man the lines, and the whole city boldly resolved to resist the invasion. But this resolution only held while the enemy was thought at a distance; for, when the formidable force of Cromwell appeared, all was obedience and submission; the gates were opened to the general, who attended the two speakers, and the rest of the members, peaceably to their habitations. The eleven members,\* who had some days before been impeached by the army, being now accused as causers of the tumult, were expelled, and most of them retired to the Continent. The lord-mayor, sheriff, and three aldermen of London, were sent to the Tower; several citizens and officers of militia were committed to prison, and the lines about the city were levelled to the ground. The command of the Tower was given to general Fairfax; and the parliament ordered him their hearty thanks for having disobeyed their commands."

389. *The House of Commons purged—"The Rump."*—"It now only remained to dispose of the king, who had been sent by the army a prisoner to Hampton Court; from whence he escaped to Titchfield, the seat of the earl of Southampton. but was once more made prisoner and confined in Carisbrook castle, in the Isle of Wight. While the king was in this

388. Who quitted the house and threw themselves under the protection of the army? Who resolved to oppose the encroachments of the army? How did they act on the approach of Cromwell with his forces? Who were sent to the Tower? Who commanded it?

389. Who was confined a prisoner in the Isle of Wight, and whence had he fled?

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\* Holles, Stapleton, Lewis, Clotworthy, Waller (Sir W.), Maynard (Sir John), Massey, Harley (Colonel), Long, Glyn, and Nicholls.



forlorn situation, the parliament, new modelled as it was by the army, was every day growing more feeble and factious. Charles still, however, continued to negotiate with the parliament for settling the unspeakable calamities of the kingdom. The parliament saw no other method of destroying the military power, but to depress it by the kingly; and frequent proposals for an accommodation passed between the captive king and the commons;" among others they sent four bills for his royal assent:—1. To acknowledge that the war against him had been just. 2. To abolish episcopacy. 3. To settle the power of the militia in persons nominated by the two houses. 4. To sacrifice all those that had adhered to him. Upon the king refusing his assent to these bills, both houses broke out into the most rude and violent language against him; and the commons voted that they would no longer treat with him, but proceed to settle the kingdom without him; and to this resolution the lords gave their concurrence (Jan. 1648). "But it was now too late: the power of parliament was soon totally to expire; for the rebellious army, crowned with success, was returned from the destruction of their enemies; and, sensible of their own power, with furious remonstrances, began to demand vengeance on their king. At the same time they advanced to Windsor; and sending an officer to seize the king's person, where he was lately sent under confinement, they conveyed him to Hurst castle, in Hampshire, opposite the Isle of Wight (Nov. 30). The commons, however, though destitute of all hopes of prevailing, had still courage to resist and attempted, in the face of the whole army, to close their treaty with the king. But the next day colonel Pride, at the head of two regiments, blockaded the house, and seized in the passage forty-one members of the presbyterian party, and sent them to a low room belonging to the house, that passed by the denomination of hell. Above 160 members more were excluded; and none were allowed to enter but the most furious and determined of the Independents, in all not exceeding 150\* (Dec. 6, 1648). This atrocious invasion of the par-

389. How did parliament attempt to destroy the military power? Who sought to conclude a treaty with the king? Who expelled the presbyterians from the House of Commons?

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\* When elected in 1640, the Long Parliament consisted of 534 members. After this time (Dec. 6, 1648), only about 150 members were allowed to continue their attendance; while the decisions that occur in the months of December, January, and February make the Yeas and the Noes together amount to little more than 80. Of course a certain number was absent, employed on military and other business. It is therefore indisputable that their subsequent proceedings, they being merely the residue of the original house of commons, ought not to be considered as the acts of the representatives of the English people.



liamentary rights, commonly passed by the name of Pride's purge, and the remaining members were called the Rump. These soon voted that the transactions of the house, a few days before, were entirely illegal, and that their general's conduct was just and necessary. A committee was appointed to bring in a charge against the king; and a vote passed, declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his parliament. A high court of justice was accordingly appointed to try his majesty for this new-invented treason."

390. *The King removed to Windsor, December, 1648.*—Nothing remained to be done, now that only the dregs of a house of commons was left, but to murder the king. "Colonel Harrison, the son of a butcher, was commanded to conduct the king from Hurst castle to Windsor, and from thence to London (Dec. 23). His afflicted subjects, who ran to have a sight of their sovereign, were greatly affected at the change that appeared in his face and person. He had allowed his beard to grow; his hair was become venerably grey, rather by the pressure of anxiety than the hand of time; while his apparel bore marks of misfortune and decay. Thus he stood a solitary figure of majesty in distress, which even his adversaries could not behold without reverence and compassion. He had been long attended only by an old decrepid servant, whose name was Sir Philip Warwick, who could only deplore his master's fate, without being able to revenge his cause. All the exterior symbols of sovereignty were now withdrawn; and his new attendants had orders to serve him without ceremony. The duke of Hamilton, who was reserved for the same punishment with his master, having leave to take a last farewell as he departed from Windsor, threw himself at the king's feet, crying out, 'My dear master.' The unhappy monarch raised him up, and embracing him tenderly, replied, while the tears ran down his cheeks, 'I have indeed been a dear master to you.' These were severe distresses; however, he could not be persuaded that his adversaries would bring him to a formal trial; but he every moment expected to be dispatched by private assassination."

391. *Trial of Charles, January, 1649.*—"From the 6th to the 20th of January, 1649, was spent in making preparations

389. How was this atrocious invasion of the parliamentary rights called, and the remaining members? What did the Rump members vote? What charge was brought against the king by the Rump parliament?

390. Who conducted the king from Hurst castle to London? At what were his afflicted subjects greatly affected? Describe the appearance of the king. Relate what passed betwixt him and the Duke of Hamilton. By what death did Charles I. expect to die?



for this extraordinary trial. The court of justice consisted of a hundred and thirty-three persons, named by the commons; but of these never above seventy sat upon the trial. The members were chiefly composed of the principal officers of the army, most of them of very mean birth, together with some of the lower house, and a few citizens of London. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was chosen president; Coke was appointed solicitor for the people of England; Dorislaus, Steele, and Aske, were named assistants. On the 19th of January, the king was conducted from Windsor to St. James's, and the next day was brought to take his trial before the high court in Westminster-hall. When he was brought forward, he was conducted by the mace-bearer to a chair placed within the bar. Though long detained a prisoner, and now produced as a criminal, he still sustained the dignity of a king; he surveyed the members of the court with a stern and haughty air; and, without moving his hat, sat down, while the members also were covered. His charge was then read by the solicitor, accusing him of having been the cause of all the bloodshed which followed since the commencement of the war: at that part of the charge he could not suppress a smile of contempt and indignation. After the charge was finished, Bradshaw directed his discourse to the king, and told him that the court expected his answer. Whereupon the king with great temper entered upon his defence by denying the authority of the court. He represented that having been engaged in treaty with his two houses of parliament, and having finished almost every article, he expected a different treatment from that he now received. He perceived, he said, no appearance of an upper house, which was necessary to constitute a just tribunal. That he was himself the king and fountain of law, and consequently could not be tried by laws to which he had never given his assent; that, having been entrusted with the liberties of the people, he would not now betray them, by recognising a power founded in usurpation; that he was willing before a proper tribunal to enter into the particulars of his defence: but that before them he must decline any apology for his innocence, lest he should be considered as the betrayer of, and not a martyr for, the constitution. In order to support

391. Of what number did the court, appointed to try the king, consist? What number attended? Why did the rest absent themselves? Why did not the twelve judges attend? In what line were the greater part of the members? What was the name of the President—of the Solicitor and his assistants? Relate the conduct of the king on being brought before this self-constituted court.



the authority of the court, Bradshaw insisted that they had received their power from the people, the source of all right. He pressed the prisoner not to decline the authority of the court, which was delegated by the commons of England, and interrupted and over-ruled the king in his attempts to reply. In this manner the king was six times produced before the court, and as often persisted in declining its jurisdiction. On the 27th of January, the court sat for the seventh and last time. As the king was proceeding thither he was insulted by the soldiers and the mob, who exclaimed, 'Justice! Justice! Execution! Execution!' but he continued undaunted. His judges having now examined some witnesses, by whom it was proved that the king had appeared in arms against the forces commissioned by parliament, Bradshaw pronounced the terrible sentence against him. 'What sentence,' said he, 'the law affirms to a tyrant, traitor, and public enemy, that sentence you are now to hear read unto you, and that is the sentence of the court.' The clerk then read it at large from a scroll of vellum. After reciting the appointment and purpose of the high court, the refusal of the king to acknowledge it, and the charges proved upon him, it concluded thus: 'for all which treason and crimes this court doth adjudge that he the said Charles Stuart, as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy, shall be put to death by severing his head from his body.' Bradshaw then rose and said, 'The sentence now read and published is the act, sentence, judgment, and resolution of the whole court;' upon which, all the commissioners stood up by way of declaring their assent. The unhappy prince attempted to make himself heard by the court once more; he was told it was then too late, sentence having been passed, and retired in the custody of the sergeant-at-arms. It is said that, in going through the hall from this execrable tribunal, the soldiers and rabble were again instigated to cry out, 'Justice,' and 'Execution.' They reviled him with the most bitter reproaches. Among other insults, one miscreant presumed to spit in the face of his sovereign. He patiently bore their insolence. 'Poor souls!' cried he, 'they would treat their generals in the same manner for sixpence.' Those of the populace who still retained the feelings of humanity, expressed their sorrows in sighs and tears. A soldier, more compassionate than the rest, could not help imploring a blessing upon his royal head. An officer overhearing him, struck the honest sentinel to the ground before the king, who

391. Who insulted him as he went and returned to the court? Why was one of the sentinels struck to the ground by his officer?



could not help saying, that the punishment exceeded the offence."

392. *Charles's last Interview with his Children.*—"At his return to Whitehall, Charles desired permission of the house to see his children, and to be attended in his private devotions by his favourite chaplain, doctor Juxon, late bishop of London. These requests were granted, and also three days to prepare for the execution of the sentence. All that remained of his family now in England were the princess Elizabeth and the duke of Gloucester, the one thirteen, the other about nine years of age. After many seasonable and sensible exhortations to his daughter, he took his little son in his arms, and embracing him, 'My child,' said he, 'they will cut off thy father's head; yes, they will cut off my head, and make thee a king. But mark what I say: thou must not be a king as long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive. They will cut off their heads, when they can take them, and thy head too they will cut off at last; and, therefore, I charge thee, do not be made a king by them.' The child, bursting into tears, replied, 'I will be torn in pieces first.' The fortitude and resignation of the king were so remarkable, that every night during the interval between his sentence and execution, he slept as sound as usual."

393. *Execution of Charles I., January 30th, 1649.*—"The fatal morning being at last arrived, king Charles rose early, and calling one of his attendants, he bade him employ more than usual care in dressing him, and preparing him for so great and joyful a solemnity. The street before Whitehall was the place destined for his execution; for it was intended that this should increase the severity of his punishment. He was led through the Banqueting-house to the scaffold, adjoining to that edifice, attended by his friend and servant bishop Juxon, a man endowed with the same mild and steady virtues as his master. The scaffold, which was covered with black, was guarded by a regiment of soldiers, under the command of colonel Tomlinson, and on it were to be seen the block, the axe, and two executioners in masks. The people, in immense crowds, stood at a great distance, in dreadful expectation of the event. The king surveyed all these solemn preparations with calm composure; and as he could not expect to be heard by the people at a distance, he

391. Did the king make any remark on witnessing that act of cruelty?

392. What requests did the king make? Relate his conversation and advice to his children. What answer did the Duke of Gloucester give to his father's advice not to be made a king by his murderers



addressed himself to the few persons who stood around him. He there justified his own innocence in the late fatal war; and observed, that he had not taken arms till after the parliament had shown him the example. That he had no other object in his warlike preparations than to preserve that authority entire, which had been transmitted to him by his ancestors; but, though innocent towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his execution in the eyes of his Maker. He owned that he was justly punished for having consented to the execution of an unjust sentence upon the earl of Strafford. He forgave all his enemies, exhorted the people to return to their obedience, and acknowledge his son as his successor; and signified his attachment to the protestant religion, as professed in the church of England. So strong was the impression his dying words made upon the few who could hear him, that colonel Tomlinson himself, to whose care he had been committed, acknowledged himself a convert. While the king was preparing himself for the block, bishop Juxon called out to him, 'There is, sir, but one stage more, which, though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. It will soon carry you a great way. It will carry you from earth to heaven, and there you shall find, to your great joy, the prize to which you hasten, a crown of glory.'—'I go,' replied the king, 'from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can have place.'—'You exchange,' replied the bishop, 'a temporary for an eternal crown; a good exchange.' Charles having taken off his cloak, delivered his George to the prelate, pronouncing the word, 'Remember.' Then he laid his neck on the block, and stretching out his hand as a signal, one of the executioners severed his head from his body at a blow, while the other holding it up, exclaimed, 'This is the head of a traitor!' The spectators testified their horror of the sad spectacle in sighs, tears, and lamentations; the tide of their duty and affection began to return, and each blamed himself either with active disloyalty to his king, or a passive compliance with his destroyers" (Jan. 30th, 1649).

394. *Character of Charles I.*—"Charles was executed in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. His body was conveyed to Windsor and deposited in a vault under St. George's chapel. He was of a middling stature, robust, and well-proportioned. His visage was pleasing, but melancholy; and it is probable that the continual

393. Relate the behaviour of the king at the place of execution.

394. In what year of his age and reign was Charles I. beheaded? What is said of his personal appearance?



troubles in which he was involved might have made that impression on his countenance." It is difficult and painful to pass from the trial and death of Charles I. to the contemplation of his character. The sanctity of suffering interposes, and in behalf of one who suffered well. Charles died a martyr—not to the church of England, as it is declared in the rubric—not to the people, as it was declared by him on the scaffold—but to the right and perpetuity of power in the kings of England, which had, in every reign from the Norman Conquest, been found incompatible with the civil and religious liberties of the whole people.

395. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). From the beginning of the contest between Charles I. and the house of commons, the downfall of the royal cause could scarcely be doubtful. To Charles, that singular compound of irresolution and obstinacy, of religious bigotry and political insincerity, were latterly opposed the matchless perspicacity, energy, decision, and military skill, of Oliver Cromwell; and to the frivolous courtiers by whose counsels Charles was influenced, there were such antagonists as Hampden, Pym, and the younger Vane, men who, singly, would have influenced society in any nation or age. The disparity also was almost as great in the military resources of the two parties. The cavaliers were men of chivalrous courage, but unsteady principle; men who were terrible in the first brunt of an onset, but who, when opposed and broken, could never again be led back to the charge; while the roundheads, to their natural courage and hardihood, added a strength of religious enthusiasm that never permitted them to doubt of the final success of the 'good cause,' and made them ready at all times to die in its defence. Men who were thus prompt to dare or endure the uttermost, could not in the nature of things be otherwise than successful; and they only laid down their swords when they had vanquished the royal power.

(2). The impartial student of English history can arrive at no other conclusion than that the contest which had been carried on between the Crown and the house of commons, more especially from the accession of Edward VI. to the execution of Charles I., had only for its object to abridge the ancient constitutional sovereign power and to increase their own, without any greater desire to promote the general and equal liberties of the whole community than was entertained by the barons who exacted for their own security and profit the over-lauded Magna Charta, not one clause of which was intended to benefit the commonalty, whom they desired to keep deprived of all personal and political rights.

(3). It was not against the claim to reign and to govern by divine right that the commons warred against Charles I. Parliament not only recognised these claims as inherent in Henry VIII., but others still more preposterous—that the people were his subject-property, and that he had the right to bequeath the crown to whomsoever he pleased (28 H. 8, c. 7, s. 9). At that time, it was not considered sufficient that kings reigned and governed by consent of the people. The majority of the members of the house of commons in the reigns of Elizabeth,

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394. What of his character? In what sense is he to be considered as a martyr?



James I., and Charles I., were the new landholders, the representatives of the body who were the possessors of the alienated ecclesiastical and crown estates, which by the common law were inalienable, it never having been recognised that a sovereign had the power to grant away a crown estate for a longer period than his own life. Hence the new landholders, who were in possession of about one-third of the area of England, sought to acquire political power in order to prevent its resumption by the State. Both Elizabeth and James discovered that the want of money could alone render the house of commons formidable to their power. Accordingly, the one practised a rigid economy in every department of the State; the other maintained a pacific policy in opposition to the recommendations of parliament, always expressing his distrust that sufficient supplies would be granted for the prosecution of war, without his making concessions of prerogative.

(4). The whole taxation granted by parliament during the forty-five years' reign of Elizabeth did not exceed on the average about £67,000 a year, and in the twenty-three years' reign of James I. to about £60,000, sums wholly insufficient to supplement the dilapidated ancient sources of revenue, without the further alienation of national property. Consequently, on the accession of Charles I. he found the national revenue wholly insufficient to defray the expenses of government, especially when involved in the war with Spain and Germany, which had been declared by his father on the urgent recommendation of parliament. This dead-lock was immediately taken advantage of by the house of commons. Charles, in opening his first parliament, intimated that £700,000 a year would be required to effectually carry on the war, when the commons only granted £120,000, a sum wholly insufficient to meet his immediate necessities, nor could any further grant be obtained without Charles consenting to surrender whatever prerogatives were demanded of him. It was therefore the exhaustion of the ancient sources of revenue, which had been sufficient for many centuries to defray the expenses of government in peace and in war, that brought on the crisis between Charles and the commons, immediately on his accession. The financial difficulty that existed, was at once taken advantage of and unscrupulously exercised. The commons then became bent on merely allowing the king to reign, while the authority and administration of government should be wholly controlled by them. Had the nation in his reign entertained the same ideas of the regal prerogative, of the powers of parliament, and of the liberty of the subject, that had prevailed for the two preceding centuries, this unfortunate prince might have reigned with high popularity. But it was his lot to mount the throne at that critical period when the public opinion had undergone an entire revolution on these topics; and, with many excellent endowments both of head and heart, he wanted that political prudence which should have taught him to yield to the necessity of the times.

(5). The only measures that could have enabled Charles to overcome the hostility of the parliamentary landocracy, were large concessions of civil and religious liberty to the whole body of the people, especially by the extension of the elective franchise and by conceding the freedom of religious belief and worship, which would have given him a house of commons determined to maintain the monarchy and to provide for the necessities of the State. But Charles had no desire to be considered as reigning and governing by the suffrages of the people. He adopted the dogma, first inserted in the coronation oath of Edward VI., that he reigned and governed by divine right. Hence, he asserted



his unconditional right to obtain whatever supplies of money he considered necessary, as well as to fix the religious belief of the people, which parliament had sanctioned in the reigns of Henry VIII., Mary, and Elizabeth. By these he made enemies of the landocracy, who had been allowed to evade their feudal obligations and who now desired political power to maintain their exemptions; and of the commonalty, who were averse to episcopacy and in favour of perfect freedom in matters of religion. The united power of these bodies was irresistible. To the last, Charles had no real intention to make concessions to either; and it was only when his obstinacy and his faithlessness were incurable that he was left by the people to his fate.

## THE COMMONWEALTH.

From January 30th, 1649, until May 29th, 1660.

### I. THE "RUMP" SUPREME.

396. *The Government—Charles II. proclaimed in Scotland and Ireland.*—The Commonwealth may be considered as having existed from the adverse issue of commissions of military array by the king and the parliament in 1642, although all public acts ran in the king's name until sentence of death was passed upon him, when the style was altered to "The keepers of the liberty of England, by the authority of parliament." Immediately after the execution of Charles I., proclamation was made declaring it treason to give any person the title of king without the consent of parliament; and announcing that the supreme authority of government was vested in the house of commons. A few days after this the abolition of the house of peers and of the office of king was voted, and a council of state, consisting of forty-one members, was appointed for one year. The first opposition to the new government proceeded from the army. The military republicans, as might be expected, were not all satisfied with the prolongation of its own existence by the "Rump" house of commons, which now only consisted of about 150 of the original 504 members elected for England and Wales in 1640. Measures were taken to suppress this spirit of discontent, and it was resolved to get rid of about 12,000 military by sending them to Ireland. They refused, however, to march, till the so-called liberties of the nation should be secured; several

396. What proclamation was made after the death of Charles I.? What was voted a few days after, and who took the direction of government? What were their first measures? Who first opposed the government?



acts of insubordination took place in London, the levellers (or republicans) in Oxfordshire and other counties appeared in arms to support their friends in the city; but Cromwell and Fairfax, who were sent against them, quickly suppressed these outbreaks. The attention of the council of state was next directed to Scotland, where, as soon as the death of the king was known, his eldest son was proclaimed king of Scotland, England, and Ireland, by the title of Charles II., at the cross of Edinburgh, with the usual formalities. In the proclamation, however, that announced Charles II. as king, the Scots expressly stipulated that, before receiving the crown, he should guarantee the security of religion, according to the terms of the National Covenant, and the Solemn League and Covenant. While Charles II. was thus proclaimed in Scotland, the same ceremony was performed in Ireland by the marquis of Ormond, so that the royal exile had two offers of restoration at one and the same time, while each country invited him to return and place himself at its head. But to the sovereign-elect it seemed only a choice of difficulties. Like his father, he hated Presbyterianism and the Covenant; and, therefore, when the Scottish commissioners repaired to him at Breda, and proposed the national conditions, Charles refused to consent, and the treaty was broken off. Ireland, his only remaining stake, was equally unacceptable; for, in such a country, the royal office could bring him nothing but a life of danger and privation, a career little suited to his tastes and habits. However, as he had now no choice, Charles agreed to join the royalists at the invitation of his viceroy Ormond, who, to obtain the co-operation of the Roman Catholics, had made a treaty consenting to the free exercise of their worship, and acknowledging the independence of the Irish parliament. In this state of affairs the council of state appointed Cromwell their lord-lieutenant of Ireland, with supreme authority, civil and military.

397. *Cromwell Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, August, 1649.*—Cromwell proceeded with 12,000 men to Milford-haven to embark for Ireland, but was there detained for some time by the general discontent of his troops, who did not like the expedition. While thus detained the parliamentary general Jones completely routed the royalist army at Dublin, and

396. Why did they do so? By whom were they suppressed? What measures were taken by the Scots? How did prince Charles act? What was done in his interest in Ireland? Who thereon was appointed lord-lieutenant?

397. What delayed Cromwell's expedition to Ireland? Who gained a complete victory over the royalists at Dublin?



captured their artillery, baggage, ammunition, and 2000 prisoners. On hearing of this victory, Cromwell sailed from Milford-haven (August 13), with only one division of his army, leaving his son-in-law Ireton to follow with the rest, which he did in a few days. The first attack of Cromwell was upon Drogheda, which was taken after a vigorous resistance, and given up to pillage and massacre for five days, the garrison of about 3000 English, and its Irish population being put to the sword. From thence Cromwell advanced against Wexford, where a similar massacre took place. These atrocities excited so desperate a courage in the Irish, that Cromwell was forced, in order to spare the lives of his own troops, to grant honourable terms of capitulation to the towns of Kilkenny and Clonmel. This leniency may however be ascribed to his anxiety to obtain a speedy submission, to allow of his leaving Ireland to take the command of the parliamentary army in Scotland, where a formidable rising had taken place under the leadership of the marquis of Montrose. When a general submission was effected, Cromwell returned from Ireland in May, 1650. Thus, in two short campaigns he reduced Ireland to a state of order, which was the less likely to be interrupted, that Ormond had fled over sea, and that 40,000 of the most restless and turbulent of the people were afterwards compelled to emigrate, while all who had borne arms against the parliament were transplanted into the counties of Connaught and Clare. In Ireland, as everywhere, Cromwell did his work effectually, leaving behind him a name which popular tradition still preserves as the symbol of terror and calamity, and some marks of his better genius, not wholly effaced by bloodshed.

398. *The royalist Expedition under Montrose.*—His hopes of Ireland being thus extinguished, prince Charles was obliged to turn his attention more seriously than he had yet done to the prospect of Scottish aid. Still, however, the conditions with which it was coupled were so unpalatable, that he was anxious to elude them; and thinking that the royalists of Scotland alone, without the aid of their more rigid Presbyterians, might be sufficient to replace him on the throne of his fathers, he sent from Holland the marquis of Montrose to prepare the way for his unconditional restoration. An expedition so daring was completely suited to such a knight-errant

397. What places did Cromwell attack? How did he treat his opponents? Why did he at last grant them honourable terms? What other reason may be assigned? How long was Cromwell occupied in reducing Ireland to submission? What were the character of his measures?

398. What was the object of Montrose's expedition?



of monarchy, who landed with a few hundred foreign soldiers at Orkney in the spring of 1650. Being there joined by a few adherents, he passed over to Caithness, intending to penetrate into the Highlands, rally his former followers, and resume that singular career of adventure in which he had formerly been so successful. But the Committee of Estates or parliament were too well aware of his activity to give him time to rally; and having sent against him their general, Strachan, the latter moved so rapidly, that he came upon the marquess by surprise, just as his troops had cleared the pass of Invercarron, on the borders of Ross. The battle was furious, but soon concluded; after gallantly repelling the first attack, the royalists were overpowered, and their leader, after escaping from the field, was betrayed to the pursuers. He was brought to Edinburgh; and as his attainder in 1644 made a fresh trial unnecessary, he was condemned upon his former sentence, and hanged at Edinburgh upon a gallows thirty feet high (May 20).

399. *Charles II. takes the Covenant, and lands in Scotland, 1650.*—Charles, fearing that the failure of Montrose would induce the Scots to expel him from the throne of that kingdom, wrote to their parliament, disclaiming all connection with his expedition. He also assured them of his readiness to accept the national conditions that had been before made to him, binding himself to take the covenant; never to permit the exercise of the Catholic religion; to be directed in all civil matters by the parliament, and in religious by the kirk. These protestations being accepted, Charles was conducted to Scotland by their commissioners, and arrived at the mouth of the Spey on the 23rd of June, only one month after the execution of his noble partizan, but he was not allowed to land until he had taken the national covenant, or solemn pledge of unity and resistance to episcopacy. After this he proceeded to Edinburgh, where he was received with the honours due to his royalty. Even thus early Charles, who is believed to have secretly become a papist, scrupled not to make promises and to take oaths without the slightest intention of observing them. As the Scots were zealously in favour of monarchy, and of the succession of their rightful king, provided their presbyterian establishment was not thereby endangered, they were not over fastidious as to the sincerity of Charles. Accordingly, they

399. What led Charles to accept the conditions required of him by the Scots? Why were they urged upon him? Was he supposed to have sincerely intended to observe them? What did the Scots to promote his rights?



raised an army under his standard as king of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and denounced the English parliament as regicides and traitors.

400. *Cromwell in Scotland—Battle of Dunbar—Levity of Charles.*—No sooner had the English parliament heard of the agreement between Charles and the Scots, than they resolved to prevent an invasion of England, and for this purpose Cromwell was sent against them, in the hope that he would be as successful as he had been in his Irish expedition. Six days after Charles landed at the Spey, the English commander left London; and on crossing the Scottish border, he issued a proclamation to his army, in which, among other prohibitions, soldiers were not allowed to offer injury to the property of any Scot not in arms against them. But this precaution on the part of Cromwell was superfluous, for the Scots, after their old fashion, had so effectually devastated the whole country from Berwick to Edinburgh, that the English troops could neither find plunder nor subsistence. Being supplied from their ships which had been sent to Dunbar, they advanced till they came within sight of Edinburgh, encountering no enemy but famine; for the Scots kept stubbornly within their trenches until the English retreated, when they showed themselves in full force, and followed close upon their track, watching the opportunity for a successful onset. This was a new kind of warfare to Cromwell and his Ironsides, who on reaching Dunbar, embarked their sick and heavy luggage, and resolved to fight their way to England as they best could. It was a perilous effort, for they were now reduced to 12,000 hunger-worn men, while general Leslie, with 27,000 well-provided soldiers, occupied the country between Dunbar and Berwick, ready to intercept them. Besides this superiority of numbers, the Scottish troops were posted so advantageously on the hills, that they could not be attacked but at the most imminent hazard. But here the rashness of the Scots, as on many former occasions, belied the prudence with which they had commenced the campaign: and on the morning of the 3rd of September, they came down from their advantageous position, to give battle on the plains. No sooner did Cromwell perceive this movement, than he exultingly exclaimed, 'The Lord hath delivered them into our hands!' The conflict was desperate; portions of the field were alternately lost and won, the numbers of the

400. What measures were taken by the English parliament on being informed of the proceedings in Scotland? What opposition did Cromwell first meet with? Where was he attacked by the Scots?



Scots being balanced by the veteran firmness and discipline of the English. While all was thus in even scale, a fog which had obscured the more remote parts of the battle, cleared away: the sun broke out, so that the whole field was visible; and Cromwell, feeling that now the advantage was his own, shouted, 'Let God arise, and his enemies be scattered!' His admirable disposition and bold attacks were crowned with their wonted success: 4000 of the Scots were slain; 10,000 taken prisoners, while 200 colours, 15,000 stand of arms, and all their baggage and artillery fell into the hands of the conquerors. Following up this victory, Cromwell turned back to Edinburgh, which he entered without resistance; Glasgow soon after submitted; and nothing remained to oppose him, but the wreck of the royal army which retreated towards Stirling. While all these dangers were being encountered in the cause of royalty, the young sovereign was daily showing himself more unworthy of the sacrifice. The levity of his manners, so unseasonable at such a period, and so unsuited to the tempers of those who were perilling their all for his sake; his libertine practices and contempt of religion, had equally shocked the worldly-prudent and the pious; while the honest rebukes of the clergy, instead of reforming, only hardened him in his excesses. He thus learned to hate the strictness of presbyterianism, and store up lessons of future vengeance: it is even said, that he rejoiced at the havoc of Dunbar, although so fatal to his own interests, because there the most zealous of his monitors had been slain. This feeling of dislike was so strong, that he even resolved to escape from them, let the hazard be what it might. Accordingly, he soon after absconded from Perth, with a few attendants, intending to escape to the Highlands, and at the head of the mountain royalists continue the war independently of presbyter or puritan, as the gallant Montrose had done. He was, however, followed and found not far on his way, asleep in a wretched hut, among the hills, surrounded by a body guard of sixty or seventy Highlanders, and brought back without much difficulty. Even after this offensive procedure, the Scots allowed him to be crowned at Scone, near Perth, on the 1st of January, 1651. Their generosity on this occasion has been instanced as an act of utter madness: for what affection could they entertain for such a sovereign? what trust could they repose in his government? But in their justification it may be said,

401. What was the result? Where did the Scots retreat to? What is said of Charles's conduct at this time? Why did the Scots tolerate the levity and insincerity of Charles?



that it was the *principle* of monarchy for which the Scottish presbyterians were contending, and not the mere monarch, and that they honestly believed in the divine appointment of kingship, without assenting to the doctrine of the divine right of kings. In rejecting Charles, therefore, in consequence either of his faults or his follies, they would have belied the religious principles they had embraced, the covenants to which they had sworn, and the professions with which they had entered England in arms, and taken part in the civil war. Equally opposed to the republicanism of the sectaries and the absolutism of the episcopalians, they were the champions and martyrs of that limited monarchy which is now the great principle of the British constitution.

401. *Charles II. invades England—Is totally routed at Worcester.*—"From the rout of Dunbar, general Leslie, with the remains of his army, fell back, until he reached Stirling, where he posted his troops so advantageously, that Cromwell found it unsafe to attack them. After endeavouring in vain to tempt them to another engagement, he resolved to starve them from their strong position, and with this view, took possession of Perth, by which he could intercept all supplies from the Highlands. The Scots soon found their place untenable; but warned of the dangers of another fight, the king himself conceived the daring idea of making a dash into England, and there renewing the war with the aid of the English royalists. Charles now took the command of the army, and commenced his southward march at the head of about 16,000 men, which he expected to be greatly reinforced in his progress; "but he soon found himself disappointed in the expectation of increasing his army. The Scots, terrified at the prospect of so hazardous an enterprise, fell from him in great numbers. The English, affrighted at the name of his opponent, dreaded to join him; but his mortifications were still more increased as he arrived at Worcester, when informed that Cromwell was marching with hasty strides from Scotland, with an army increased to 40,000 men. The news had scarcely arrived, when that active general himself appeared; and, falling upon the town on all sides, broke in upon the disordered royalists. The streets were strewn with slaughter; the whole Scots army were either killed or taken prisoners; and the king himself, having given many proofs of personal valour, was obliged to fly (Sept. 3, 1651)." Charles's adventures during forty-one days, which were passed by him

401. Where did the Scots who escaped from the battle of Dunbar retreat to? What determined Charles II. to lead his army into England? What was the result?



as a fugitive, surpass all that the most fertile romance writer could devise. For some time he escaped detection by concealing himself amid the bushy foliage of an oak in Boscobel wood by day, and in the barns of the five brothers Penderel by night. He had repeatedly to disguise himself as a peasant, and sometimes as a woman. Upwards of forty persons were privy, at different times, to these devices, and all of them knew that treachery on their parts would enrich their families. Yet they kept his secret with the most honourable fidelity, and guided him to the coast. He took ship at Shoreham, and landed at Feschamp in Normandy (Oct. 22, 1651).

402. *Cromwell returns in Triumph to London.*—On the ninth day after the battle of Worcester, Cromwell returned in triumph to London. He was met beyond Aylesbury by four commissioners from the parliament, who were instructed to show him all possible marks of respect; and, at Acton, he was met by the speaker, the president of the council, the lord mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs of London, and a great number of persons of distinction. A state coach was likewise provided for him to make his entry into London, where he was received with loud acclamations; and the parliament settled lands upon him and his heirs of the yearly value of 4000*l*. But all the honours conferred upon him by the government he knew to be precarious; and, therefore, he began to take measures for assuming a supreme authority over that very body from which he had derived his present greatness.

403. *The Commonwealth acknowledged—Scotland annexed.*—The total destruction of the royalist army at Worcester, and the flight of Charles, were speedily followed by the Commonwealth, being acknowledged over all the British dominions. In April, 1652, “an act was passed for abolishing royalty in Scotland, and annexing that kingdom, as a conquered province, to the English commonwealth. It was empowered, however, to send forty-two members to the parliament. English judges were appointed to distribute justice: and the people of that country, now freed from the tyranny of the presbyterian ecclesiastics, were not much dissatisfied with their present government. The prudent conduct

401. Where did Charles conceal himself while a fugitive? How many persons were privy to his concealment? How did they act, under the knowledge that a large reward was offered for the betrayal of the king?

402. Relate the reception given to Cromwell on his return from the army. What was the amount of the annuity settled upon him and his heirs? Was he contented with his position?

403. What did the battle of Worcester lead to? What act was passed respecting the kingdom of Scotland?



of general Monk, who was left by Cromwell to complete their pacification, served much to reconcile the minds of the people, harassed with various dissensions, of which it is unnecessary to give any detail. In like manner Ireland was totally subdued by Ireton and Ludlow, who succeeded Cromwell in the command-in-chief. All the settlements in America, which had declared for the royal cause, were obliged to submit; Jersey, Guernsey, Scilly, and the Isle of Man were brought easily under subjection. Thus mankind saw, with astonishment, a parliament composed of generally not more than eighty members, governing a great empire with unanimity and success. Without any acknowledged subordination, except a council of state, consisting of forty-one members chosen from their own body and the more distinguished presbyterians to whom all addresses were made, they levied armies, maintained fleets, and gave laws to the neighbouring powers of Europe. The finances were managed with economy and exactness. Few private persons became rich by the plunder of the public: the revenues of the crown, the lands of the bishops, and a property tax of 120,000*l.* a month, supplied the wants of the government, and gave vigour to all their proceedings."

404. *The Dutch War, 1652.*—"The parliament having thus reduced their native dominions to perfect obedience, next resolved to chastise the Dutch, who had given but very slight causes of complaint. It happened that doctor Dorislaus, who was of the number of the late king's judges, being sent by the parliament as their envoy to Holland, was assassinated by one of the royal party, who had taken refuge there. Some time after, also, his successor, Mr. St. John, was insulted by the partizans of prince William II., of Orange, who had married a daughter of Charles I. These, together with the refusal of the states-general to enter into a federal union with the commonwealth, were thought motives sufficient to justify a declaration of war against them. The parliament's chief dependence lay in the activity and courage of their admirals Blake, Ascough, and Pen. On the other side, the Dutch opposed to these their famous admirals Van Tromp, Ruyter, and de Witt. Many were the engagements between these celebrated admirals, and various was their success. Sea-fights,

403. Whom did Cromwell leave in Scotland to complete the subjugation of the people? Over what did the authority of the English parliament now extend? By what were the wants of government supplied?

404. What nation did the parliament resolve to chastise? Who commanded the fleets of the hostile nations?



in general, seldom prove decisive; and the vanquished are soon seen to make head against the victors. Several dreadful encounters, therefore, rather served to show the excellence of the admirals, than to determine their superiority. The Dutch, however, who felt many great disadvantages by the loss of their trade, and by the total suspension of their fisheries, were willing to treat for a peace; but the 'Rump' gave them a very unfavourable answer. It was the policy of that body to keep their navy on foot as long as they could; rightly judging, that while the force of the nation was exerted by sea, it would diminish the power of general Cromwell by land, which was now become very formidable to them."

405. *Cromwell disperses the Long Parliament.*—When Cromwell became assured that the government had determined to augment the navy and reduce the army, under the pretext that the latter was unnecessary and expensive, he saw into this scheme to lessen his influence, and, without loss of time, made it answer his own purpose. For, repairing to the army, he excited the principal officers to draw up a petition demanding the payment of their arrears, and affirming, that the public revenues, if honestly and wisely managed, would be sufficient for the regular subsistence of the present land army, notwithstanding any proposed augmentation of the navy. This petition produced a warm debate, and the parliament voted that the officers should be reprimanded for their insolence. This step increased the mutiny, and a remonstrance was now delivered on the part of the army, complaining that the parliament had not performed its promise to dissolve itself, agreeably to a former petition presented by their body; they therefore desired that they would now put an end to their administration; that there might be a regular succession of parliaments; and that they would appoint a council of state, to take charge of the public affairs, till a new parliament was convoked. This proposal was refused with indignation, and Cromwell, well knowing that a motion for disbanding the greater part of the army would soon be made, found that he had no time to lose. Accordingly, on the 20th of April, 1653, while the house was actually debating on a motion for continuing the parliament above a year and a half longer, he entered it, accompanied by a number of officers who were most devoted to him, leaving in Westminster Hall,

404. Did the naval engagements which followed prove decisive? Why did the parliament wish to keep the navy on foot?

405. What measure did Cromwell adopt to prevent the reduction of the army?



upon the stairs and in the lobby, a chosen detachment of soldiers, to the amount of 300 men. After attending quietly in his place for some time to the debates, he whispered major-general Harrison, that he now thought the parliament ripe for a dissolution: but the general requested him to think seriously, before he undertook so dangerous an action. 'You say well,' replied Cromwell, and sat still about a quarter of an hour, when, the debates being ended, and the speaker preparing to put the question, he said to Harrison, 'This is the time I must do it;' and so, standing up on a sudden, he bade the speaker leave the chair, and told the house that they had sat long enough, unless they had done more good. 'Then, addressing himself to the members: 'For shame,' said he; 'get you gone. Give place to honest men; to those who will more faithfully discharge their trust. You are no longer a parliament: I tell you, you are no longer a parliament: the Lord has done with you.' Sir Harry Vane exclaiming against this conduct: 'Sir Harry,' cried Cromwell, with a loud voice, 'O! Sir Harry Vane, the Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane.' Taking hold of Martin by the cloak, 'Thou art a whoremaster;' to another, 'Thou art an adulterer;' to a third, 'Thou art a drunkard;' to a fourth, 'Thou art a glutton.' 'It is you,' continued he to the members, 'that have forced me upon this. I have sought the Lord night and day, that he would rather slay me, than put me upon this work.' Then pointing to the mace, 'Take away,' cried he, 'that bauble.' After which, turning out all the members, and clearing the hall, he ordered the doors to be locked, and putting the key in his pocket, returned to Whitehall." The same afternoon the council of state assembled; but before they had time for discussion, Cromwell entered, and told them that the parliament was dissolved, and with it the council of state. Whereon president Bradshaw replied, 'We have heard what you did at the House this morning, and before many hours all England shall know it: but you are mistaken, the parliament is not dissolved, nor have you the power to do it.' After this protest the members of the council retired.

## II. OLIVER CROMWELL SUPREME.

406. *New Council of State—the Barebone's Parliament nominated.*—Now that Cromwell had forcibly taken the reins of government into his own hands, it remained for him to deter-

405. Relate the manner in which he dissolved the parliament.



mine whether he would keep them or not; but he saw that the moment was not yet arrived, and that it would be safer to obtain the supremacy by intrigue, than to snatch it by violence. He therefore determined to suffer himself, for the present, to be guided by the fanatics who had assisted him to overthrow the government. A new council of state was then formed, consisting of four civilians, eight principal officers of the army, and Cromwell for president. They conducted the affairs of government during some months, but at length deemed it prudent to appoint a so-called parliament; and as the fanatics pretended to do everything for the love, or by the inspiration, of God, they determined to select only men who were remarkable for the sanctity of their lives. With this view the ministers of various religious denominations in the counties were required to send in the names of the most pious men belonging to their congregations, and from them Cromwell selected 139 Englishmen, 6 Welshmen, 4 Scotsmen, and 6 Irishmen, who were summoned to appear at Whitehall on the 4th of July, 1653. Among these were two names which have obtained a remarkable and widely different celebrity: Praise-God-Barebone, a leather-seller in Fleet-street, and frequent speaker, from which the assemblage was called in derision, Barebone's parliament; and Sir Anthony Ashley Cooper, afterwards earl of Shaftesbury and lord-chancellor of England.

407. *Proceedings in Barebone's Parliament—Its Suppression.*—On the 4th of July, 120 of the persons summoned assembled in the council chamber at Whitehall, when Cromwell addressed them, saying it was the spirit of God which had called them together, and that he was only the instrument of the divine will. He then placed on the table a paper giving to them the supreme authority, which they were to hold during fifteen months, and then transmit it to another assembly to be chosen by themselves. This pious conclave invited Cromwell and four of his officers to sit among them as members; and gave him Hampton-court for his residence. They, however, showed that they would not be the blind instruments of his will. A party spirit was soon perceptible among them, and became divided into the Independents and the Anabaptists. Cromwell was the leader of the former, and

406. Why did Cromwell not keep the reins of government entirely in his own hands? How was the new council of state formed, and how did they compose a parliament? Who were two of its noted members? From whom did this parliament receive its name?

407. How did Cromwell address the new house of commons? Into what parties did the members form themselves?



major-general Harrison of the latter, which was the most numerous party. They introduced the most rigid economy in the government, and greatly excited the jealousy of their adversaries by objecting to the monthly property-tax of 120,000*l.* for the support of the army and navy. They also attempted to reform the whole system of English jurisprudence, determining especially to abolish the court of chancery, where many families had been ruined by the protraction of causes from five to thirty years; and projected also the reduction of the even then immense body of English laws into the compass of a pocket volume, so that every man might know the laws by which he was governed. These measures alarmed the Independents and the men in office, who were soon joined by the principal Churchmen, whom the Anabaptists attacked by proposing a law for the abolition of tithes and advowsons. They next advised the injurious prosecution of the Dutch war until the United Provinces were incorporated with the commonwealth of England. Cromwell opposed this extravagant demand, when they immediately declared him to be the 'old dragon, the man of sin, the beast in the Apocalypse.' After enduring their insults for some time he determined to crush the pious conclave altogether, and having consulted with his friends, they went on the 12th of December and took their seats in the house. As soon as the debates began, colonel Sydenham rose, charged the Anabaptists with having injured the nation by their bad government, and moved that they should proceed to Whitehall, and resign the supreme power into the hands of him who had entrusted it to them. The Independents immediately withdrew, accompanied by the speaker, who was in the secret. About fifty members followed them, leaving the rest in a state of stupefaction, from which they were roused by colonel White, who was sent "to clear the house of such as ventured to remain there. They had placed one Moyer in the chair by the time that the colonel had arrived; and he being asked by the colonel what they did there, Moyer replied very gravely, that they were seeking the Lord! 'Then you may go elsewhere,' cried White, 'for, to my certain knowledge, the Lord has not been here these many years.'" In the meantime the Independents proceeded to Whitehall, and offered the supreme power to Cromwell. He affected great reluctance to load himself with so

407. Who became their leaders? Which party was the most numerous? What measures were carried by the Anabaptists? How did they designate Cromwell? What procedure did Cromwell take to suppress the parliament?



heavy a burden; but at length yielded to the solicitations of the military officers. A paper was then prepared for the signatures of those members who wished him to accept it, and in three days the names amounted to eighty, which was an absolute majority of the whole so-called parliament.

408. *Cromwell Lord-Protector, Dec. 16, 1653.*—On the fourth day after the suppression of the Barebone's parliament, a new constitution was published, and Cromwell became 'in all but name a king.' This constitution, or Instrument of government, as it was called, was drawn up by the council of military officers solely by their own authority. It recited that the legislative supreme authority should be in one person, and the people in parliament assembled, and that this person should be Oliver Cromwell, who should enjoy, with the designation of His Highness, the title of Lord-Protector of the commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and of the territories thereunto belonging: the office was not, however to be hereditary: on the demise of the protector, it was provided that the council of state should assemble to the number of not fewer than thirteen, and immediately elect his successor. In this strange and circuitous manner, and through the force of circumstances, a man neither distinguished by birth nor external advantages, and at a comparatively late period in life, was invested with that king-like authority, to abolish which the nation had endured so many sufferings. But it was the natural consequence of such a national revolution, in which the chief arbitrator was the sword: he who had wielded it most effectively became the final dictator. By the foreign powers the elevation of Cromwell was viewed without surprise: they had anticipated it; and those to whom the friendship of England was valuable, or its enmity dangerous, sent ambassadors to congratulate the lord-protector. "He chose his new council of state from among his officers, who had been the companions of his dangers and his victories, to each of whom he assigned a pension of one thousand pounds a year. He took care to have his troops, upon whose fidelity he depended for support, paid a month in advance; the magazines were also well provided, and the public treasure managed with frugality and care; while his activity, vigilance,

407. What was thereafter done by his partisans?

408. By whose authority was Cromwell declared lord-protector? By what name was the so-called constitution called? How was Cromwell's elevation received by foreign powers? Who were nominated to form his new council of state? How did he secure the fidelity of his troops? What was the character of his administration?



and resolution, were such that he discovered every conspiracy against his person, and every plot for an insurrection, before they took effect."

409. *Cromwell's second Parliament—Is abruptly dissolved, 1654-5.*—Cromwell had now been nearly twelve months the sole and absolute depository of the supreme power. His ordinances had the force of law, and he imposed taxes by his sole authority. The Instrument of government required that a parliament should be called within three years; that it should consist of 400 members for England, 30 for Scotland, and 30 for Ireland; and that every person who possessed real property to the value of 200*l.* should have a vote in their election. Writs were issued for the election of members; and they were summoned to meet on the 3rd of September, 1654. The new parliament was opened by the protector in a speech of three hours' length, in which he described the state of the nation at the close of the last parliament, as compared with the then state of things, and concluded with stating that it only remained for them to second his efforts in order to ensure the happiness of the country. It soon appeared that this parliament was composed of three parties—courtiers, presbyterians, and republicans; and that the protector could not command a majority. The first great discussion brought in question the authority of Cromwell. It was continued during four successive days, after which the house, by a majority of only five, came to the following vote:—'That the supreme legislative authority should be in the parliament of the people of England, and in a single person, *qualified by such instructions as that assembly should authorise.*' Cromwell became alarmed at the result, and determined to take a decisive step. On the 12th of September, he sent three regiments to occupy the principal posts in the city, and having commanded the house to attend upon him at Whitehall, he told them that God and the people had given him the office, and that none but God and the people should take it from him. He added that he would not permit them to sit, and yet disown his authority; that he had therefore prepared an instrument of recognition which he required them to sign; and that those who refused should be excluded. The members, on their return to the house, found a guard of soldiers at the doors, and in the lobby the instrument of recognition ready for signature. The speaker (Lenthall) and the court-party signed it imme-

409. Of how many members was the new parliament composed? By whom were they elected? Into how many parties was it divided? How were they designated?



diately, and in a few days about 300 had subscribed their names. The republicans refused, and were excluded. This violent procedure did not mend matters. Parliament, bent on limiting the power of the protector, discussed various matters which greatly annoyed him. But that which most provoked his anger or his fears was a series of resolutions for the settlement of the government—that is, the limitation of his power. The court-party proposed that a conference with the protector should precede the decision, which motion was rejected by a majority of twelve, 95 voting for, and 107 against it (Jan. 10). Twelve days after, Cromwell again summoned the house to meet him, and after reproaching them in a long speech, declared the parliament dissolved (Jan. 22, 1655).

410. *The Government now a military Despotism—Foreign Affairs.*—The government of Cromwell, hitherto carried on by desultory acts, now received from him the organization of a military despotism. He divided England into 12 districts, to be governed each by a major-general, with the district militia under his command. His instructions to these embraced a system of military inspection which completely superseded the civil government. But the genius of the government, though military and despotic, was practically mild (Oct., 1655). “In his management of foreign affairs, though his schemes were by no means political, yet they well corresponded with his character, and, for a while, were attended with success. The Dutch having been humbled by repeated defeats, and totally abridged in their commercial concerns, were obliged at last to sue for peace, which he gave them upon terms rather too favourable. He insisted upon their paying deference to the British flag, he compelled them to abandon the interest of Charles II., and to pay 85,000*l.* as an indemnification for former expenses; and to restore the English East India Company a part of those dominions of which they had been dispossessed during the former reign (April, 1654). Nor was Cromwell less successful in his negotiations with the court of France. Cardinal Mazarin, by whom the affairs of that kingdom were conducted, deemed it necessary to pay deference to the protector; and desirous rather to prevail by dexterity than violence, submitted to

409. Did Cromwell command a majority of votes? Why did he dissolve this parliament?

410. In what way was the government administered? What nation did he compel to pay deference to the British flag? In what manner did Cardinal Mazarin conduct the French negotiations with Cromwell?



Cromwell's imperious character, and thus procured ends equally beneficial to both." A treaty of peace was concluded and proclaimed between both countries, in November, 1655. It however is honourable to Cromwell, that he made the concession of this treaty to depend on cardinal Mazarin obtaining from his ally the duke of Savoy, the cessation of persecution against his protestant subjects—the discontents of the Waldenses of the middle ages, in the valleys of Piedmont.

411. *War with Spain—Jamaica conquered—Death of Blake.*—"The court of Spain had been not less assiduous in its endeavours to gain Cromwell's friendship, but was not so successful. This vast monarchy, which but a few years before had threatened the liberties of Europe, was now reduced so low as to be scarce able to defend itself. Cromwell, however, who knew nothing of foreign politics, still continued to regard its power with an eye of jealousy, and came into an association with France to depress it still more. He lent that court a body of 6000 men to attack the Spanish dominions in the Netherlands; and, upon obtaining a signal victory by his assistance at Dunes, the French put Dunkirk, which they had just taken from the Spaniards, into his hands, as a reward for his attachment. But it was by sea that he humbled the power of Spain with still more effectual success." Admirals Penn and Venables were sent with about 4000 land forces to attack the island of Hispaniola (Dec., 1654). Failing, however, in this, and being driven off the place by the Spaniards, they steered to Jamaica, which was surrendered to them without a blow (May, 1655). So little was thought of the importance of this conquest, that, upon the return of the expedition, Penn and Venables were sent to the Tower, for their failure in the principal object of their expedition. "But Blake, who had long made himself formidable to the Dutch, and whose fame was spread over Europe, now became still more dreadful to the Spanish monarchy. He sailed with a fleet into the Mediterranean, whither, since the time of the crusades, no English fleet had ever ventured to advance. He there conquered all that dared to oppose him. Casting anchor before Leghorn, he demanded and obtained satisfaction for some injuries which the English commerce had suffered from the duke of Tuscany. He

411. To what nation did Cromwell lend a body of six thousand men to attack the Spanish Netherlands? Relate the success of admiral Blake. What admirals were sent against Hispaniola? What was the consequence of their failure? What became of admirals Venables and Penn? On what expedition was admiral Blake sent? What did he do?



next sailed to Algiers, and compelled the dey to make peace, and to restrain his piratical subjects from further injuring the English. He then went to Tunis, and, having made the same demands, he was desired by the dey of that place to look at the two castles, Porto Farino and Goletta, and do his utmost. Blake showed him that he was not slow in accepting the challenge; he entered the harbour, burned the shipping there, and then sailed out triumphantly to pursue his voyage (May, 1655). At Cadiz, he took two galleons valued at near two millions of pieces of eight (Sept., 1656). At the Canaries he burned a Spanish fleet of sixteen ships; and returning home to England to enjoy the fame of his noble actions, he expired, on board the *St. George*, as his ship entered Plymouth Sound (Aug. 17th, 1657). This gallant man, though he fought for an usurper, yet was averse to his cause: he was a zealous republican in principle, and his aim was to serve his country, not to establish a tyrant. 'It is still our duty,' he would say to the seamen, 'to fight for our country, into whatever hands the government may fall.'"

412. *Cromwell's third Parliament—He declines the Title of King.*—The awe with which all foreign powers were inspired by the vigour of Cromwell's policy, and the *éclat* of naval victories, did not render the people more submissive to his despotism. The institution of parliament, the sentiment that the nation could be taxed only through its representatives, and that government ought to be administered only as authorised by the law, were so implanted in the English mind that Cromwell issued writs on the 10th of July, and fixed the meeting of the new parliament for the 17th of September. The republicans again took the field with unabated courage and energy, whereon Cromwell arrested seven of their chief leaders—Bradshaw, Vane, Ludlow, Harrison, Rich, Okey, and Lawrence. But all his despotic and illegal proceedings failed to exclude the republicans, or procure a subservient majority. To counteract this result, Cromwell resorted to an exercise of power so arbitrary, as to render the summoning of parliament a mockery. When the elected proceeded to the house on the 17th of September, 1656, they found the door guarded by soldiers, who permitted none to enter who were unprovided with a certificate of the approbation of the council. This ticket was withheld from about 100 members. These published a fearless remonstrance to

411. Where and when did admiral Blake die?

412. Why did Cromwell summon a new parliament? How did he treat the republicans? Did they remonstrate? To whom did they appeal?



the nation, declaring their right to sit in the house, and protesting against the legality of all acts made during their exclusion; also denouncing the hypocrisy and tyranny of Cromwell, and concluding with denouncing his abettors capital enemies of the commonwealth. Meanwhile the public business proceeded. Among the resolutions and acts of this parliament were:—one for vigorously prosecuting the war against Spain; another for renouncing and abolishing anew the title of the late king and his family; a third for the security of the protector's person, making it high treason to conspire his death; a fourth, 'the humble petition and advice' to take upon him the title of king, and govern as in times past, with the advice of the two houses of parliament, which was carried by a majority of 123 to 62. Of this ardently-desired designation the protector however was balked by the council of officers, who presented to himself an address of remonstrance, and to parliament a petition 'that the petitioners had hazarded their lives against monarchy, and were still ready to do so.' Intimidated by this procedure, in which several of his most confidential friends were engaged, the protector reluctantly communicated to the commons 'That he could not, with a good conscience, accept the government under the title of king' (May, 1657). On finding themselves obliged to maintain the name of a commonwealth and a protector, the commons not long after waited upon Cromwell with another petition and advice, which was in reality a new constitution of government. By this instrument the protector was at liberty to name his immediate successor, the two houses of parliament were to be restored, and the annual revenue was fixed at 1,900,000*l.* of which 300,000*l.* was for the civil list. Cromwell, as chief of the remodelled government, was inaugurated at Westminster-hall with almost the same magnificence, and the same ceremonies that were usual at the coronation of the kings of England; and the same day parliament was adjourned for six months, to give time for the formation of the other house (June 26).

413. *Cromwell's Prestige weakened—New House of Lords—Parliament dissolved.*—Cromwell now appeared as firmly established in power as any monarch of his time. It has been affirmed that his aspiring to the crown and failing to obtain it did not weaken his power. But this is

412. What were the principal acts of this parliament? Why did Cromwell refuse the title of king? Was he sincere in doing so? What new scheme of government was then voted by the commons? What liberty was given to Cromwell? What fixed annual revenue, and civil list?



a mistake. No politician ever, perhaps, made a false step with impunity; and Cromwell's imprudence, so far from being harmless, was a fatal one. It weakened the confidence of those who supported his usurpation, they seeing that he had not servants, but masters, in the military officers; and it also divulged the secret that he considered the nation preferred the government of a king. This was more fully exemplified by his now establishing, of his own authority, a house of lords, consisting of 61 persons, many of whom had the chief share in defeating his attempt to become king. In this procedure he appears to have had two principal objects in view: the one to remove from the house of representatives those who were troublesome to him; the other to combine the ancient nobility with men who had risen by the sword and their services, from the people; but he wholly failed in both. On the members again assembling, pursuant to adjournment, on the 20th of January, 1658, the house was opened by Cromwell according to ancient form. An usher of the black rod summoned the commons to attend in the house of lords, whereon his highness the lord-protector began his speech with 'My lords, and you the knights, citizens, and burgesses of the house of commons.' After making a few unimportant observations, he commanded his lord-keeper Finnes to deliver his mind more at large. The commons returned with fixed resolution and new resentment to their own house. After three days' preliminary sitting, a message 'from the lords' desired the concurrence of the commons in an address to the protector. The commons protested against the title 'the house of lords,' and would admit of no other than that of 'the other house.' It was even maintained that the new house was not a co-ordinate legislative assembly, but invested only with certain functions of judicature. This point continued under discussion to the 4th of February. Cromwell then summoned the commons to attend him at Whitehall, and remonstrated with them, which only incited them to a still more direct attack upon his authority. It was proposed to invalidate every act done in the previous session, on account of his arbitrary exclusion of 100 members. Finding the commons determined to thwart all his schemes, the protector went to the house of lords and summoned the attendance of the commons. On their

413. Why is it said that Cromwell's power was weakened by his not obtaining the title of king? What reasons are given for his re-creation of the house of lords? Was that procedure approved by the representatives of the nation? How did they show their opposition to his authority? How did he then act?



appearing he reproached them for their seditious and ungrateful behaviour, and then dissolved the parliament. This conclusion of his speech was answered from the commons with a loud and general murmur of 'Amen.' Thus ended Cromwell's last parliament, after sitting only fourteen days in its second session.

414. *State of Parties—Cromwell dreads Assassination.*—Such arbitrary measures of the protector gave much discontent to those by whose assistance he had been placed in power. They saw that he alone reaped the fruits of their labours. Their dissatisfaction began to be loudly expressed. "The whole nation silently detested his administration, but he had not still been reduced to the extreme of wretchedness, if he could have found domestic consolation. Fleetwood, his son-in-law, actuated with the wildest zeal, detested that character which could use religious professions for the purposes of temporal advancement. His eldest daughter, married to Fleetwood, had adopted republican principles so vehemently, that she could not behold even her own father entrusted with uncontrollable power. His other daughters were no less sanguine in favour of the royal cause; but, above all, Mrs. Claypole, his favourite daughter, who, upon her death-bed, upbraided him with all those crimes that led him to trample on the throne. Every hour added some new disquietude. Lord Fairfax, Sir William Waller, and many of the heads of the presbyterians, had secretly entered into an engagement to destroy him. One conspiracy was no sooner detected, but another rose from its ruins; and to increase his calamity, he was now taught, upon reasoning principles, that his death was not only desirable, but his assassination would be meritorious. A book was published by colonel Titus, a man who had formerly been attached to his cause, entitled 'Killing no Murder.'\* Of all the pamphlets that came forth at that time, or perhaps of those that have since appeared, this was most eloquent and masterly. 'Shall we,' said this popular declaimer, 'who would not suffer the lion to invade us, tamely stand to be devoured by the wolf?' Cromwell read this

414. What was the situation of Cromwell at this period? How had he rendered himself hateful to every party? With what did he begin and end? Did his own family approve of his conduct? Who entered into a conspiracy to destroy him? What was he now taught upon reasoning principles? What was the title of the book of Colonel Titus?

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\* This work was published under the assumed name of William Allen, having for its title, "Killing no Murder; with some Additions, fit for public Use, to deter and prevent Single Persons and Councils from Usurping Supreme Power"



spirited treatise, and was never seen to smile more. All peace was thereafter banished from his mind. He now found, that the grandeur to which he had sacrificed his former peace was only an inlet to fresh inquietudes. The fears of assassination haunted him in all his walks, and were perpetually present to his imagination. He wore armour under his clothes, and always kept pistols in his pockets. His aspect was clouded by a settled gloom; and he regarded every stranger with a glance of timid suspicion. He always travelled with hurry, and was ever attended by a numerous guard. He never returned from any place by the road he went; and seldom slept above three nights together in the same chamber. Society terrified him, as there he might meet an enemy; solitude was terrible, as he was there unguarded by every friend."

415. *Cromwell's last Illness and Death.*—"A tertian ague came kindly at last to deliver him from this life of horror and anxiety. For the space of a week no dangerous symptoms appeared; and in the interval of the fits, he was able to walk abroad. At length the fever increased, and he became delirious. He was just able to answer yes, to the demand whether his eldest son Richard should be appointed to succeed him." He died on the 3rd of September, the anniversary of his victories over the Scots at Dunbar, and the royalists at Worcester; he was then fifty-nine years old, having governed England about nine years, during five of which he filled the office of protector. His funeral obsequies were performed with great pomp, and the body, after lying in state at Somerset-house, was deposited in a vault in Westminster-abbey, on the 23rd of November, 1658. Cromwell had issue two sons and four daughters: 1. Richard, his successor; 2. Henry, lord-lieutenant of Ireland; 3. Bridget, married first to general Ireton, and, after his death to general Fleetwood; 4. Mary, married to lord Falconberg; 5. Frances, married first to Mr. Rich, grandson of the earl of Warwick, and secondly to Sir John Russell, of Chippenham; 6. Elizabeth, married to John Claypole, Esq., his master of the horse.

416. *Summary of Cromwell's political Character and Administration.*—Notwithstanding the unconstitutional character of his authority, and the means by which it had been attained,

414. What effect had the reading of it upon Cromwell's spirits? What evidence is there that he dreaded assassination?

415. What disease put an end to Cromwell's life? In what year did he die, and at what age? Where was he interred? How many children did he leave? What were their names?



Cromwell was no mean and selfish usurper. The power which he had acquired, he used for the welfare and aggrandisement of his country alone, and at no period had England ever assumed such a commanding position among the nations as during his protectorate. One author thus reckons up the benefits of his administration:—"1. By Blake he more humbled and subdued the Algerine, Tripoli, and Tunis pirates, than ever any before or since did. 2. Westminster-hall was never replenished with more learned and upright judges than by him; nor was justice, either in law or equity, in civil cases, more equally distributed. 3. When the Norway traders represented to him the mischief and inconveniences of the act of navigation, he, during his time, dispensed with it, and permitted the English to trade to Norway for timber, masts, pitch, tar, and iron, as before the act: and by a law made in his third parliament, licence is given to transport fish in foreign bottoms. 4. Though he was rash in making war with Spain, and peace with France, yet he made a more advantageous treaty of commerce for the English to France than before they had. 5. Though he joined forces with the French against the Spaniards, yet he reserved the sea-towns conquered from the Spaniards to himself, and so had Dunkirk and Mardyke delivered up to him, and would have had Ostend, if the garrison had not cheated both Mazarin and him; thereby to be arbitrator over the French, as well as Spaniards, when he pleased. 6. Cromwell outvied the best of our kings, in rendering our laws to the subject into the English tongue: for though Edward I. permitted pleading in the English language, yet he went no further; whereas Cromwell rendered not only the pleadings, but practice, and laws themselves into English." In short, he applied himself so industriously to the business of the commonwealth, and discovered such abilities for managing it, that his greatest enemies acknowledged that he was not unworthy of the government, if his way to it had been just and legitimate. And he showed his good understanding in nothing more than in seeking out capable and worthy men for all employments, but more particularly for the courts of law, which gave general satisfaction. By maintaining the honour of the nation in all foreign parts he gratified the temper which is natural to Englishmen. Of this he was so careful, that, though he was not a crowned head, yet his ambassadors had all the distinctions paid them which our kings' ambassadors ever had. He would say, 'That the dignity of the Crown was upon the account of the nation, of which the king was only the representative head; and therefore,



the nation being still the same, he would have the same respect paid to his ministers.' His influence was so great in France, that cardinal Mazarin durst not deny him anything. It was even said that the cardinal would change countenance when he heard Cromwell named; so that it passed into a proverb in France, 'That he was not so much afraid of the devil as of Oliver Cromwell.' Spain dreaded him, and courted his friendship, as much as France, though the latter prevailed. When the Spanish ambassador was informed that the fleet under Penn and Venables was gone towards the West Indies, and that the storm was likely to fall upon some of his master's territories, he applied himself to the protector, to know whether he had any just ground of complaint against the king his master; if so, he was ready to give him all possible satisfaction. The protector demanded a liberty to trade to the Spanish West Indies, and the repeal of the laws of the Inquisition: to which the ambassador replied, 'That his master had but two eyes, and that he would have him put them both out at once.' The States of Holland so dreaded him, that they were very careful to give him no manner of umbrage: and when at any time Charles II. or his brothers came to see their sister, the princess of Orange, within a day or two they used to send a deputation to acquaint the refugees that Cromwell had obliged them to give them no harbour. Even the Turks stood in awe of Cromwell, and dared not offend him. And all Italy trembled at his name, and seemed under a panic-fear as long as he lived.

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### III. RICHARD CROMWELL LORD-PROTECTOR.

417. *The Succession unopposed—New Parliament—Fall of Richard.*—On the death of Cromwell, whatever might have been the difference of interest, the influence of his name was still sufficient to get his elder son Richard proclaimed lord-protector in his room by the authority of the council of state, and without a murmur from any quarter (Sept. 4). The foreign princes who had recognised the father sent their congratulations to the son, and the royalists, who expected that the commonwealth would expire with Oliver Cromwell, looked with dismay at the unopposed succession of his son. This apparent tranquillity was, however, but the harbinger of a storm. Meetings were held among the principal military

416. What is said of Cromwell's administration? What else?

417. What influence had the name of Cromwell after his death?



officers, who were dissatisfied with seeing at the head of the commonwealth a man who had never drawn his sword in its defence. On the contrary, moderate and right-minded as well as aspiring men saw in the mild and virtuous Richard one whom they could mould according to their wishes. His good sense and desire to govern constitutionally were exhibited by his appointing for his confidential advisers Thurloe, Whitelock, Finnes, Lisle, St. John, Broghill, and Pierrepont. Acting on their advice he issued writs for the election of a new parliament, which his father had determined upon summoning when he was seized with his last illness; and in the hopes of obtaining greater influence in elections, the ancient right was restored to all the small boroughs, and the counties were allowed no more than their usual members; the house of peers, or 'the other house,' was however to consist of the persons that had been appointed by his father. This unauthorised procedure is generally considered to have been a fatal mistake, as it induced the impression that Richard sought to govern in an arbitrary matter, and to alter the constitution as he thought proper. The new parliament, consisting of two houses, met on the 27th of January, with the usual forms. The proceedings in the commons soon proved Richard's insecurity; but his overthrow was speedily brought about by those who ought to have been foremost in upholding his authority. The most considerable officers of the army, including Fleetwood, his brother-in-law, and Desborough, his uncle, were intriguing against him, even holding their meetings for that purpose at Wallingford-house, the residence of Fleetwood, from which circumstance the conspiracy was called the Cabal of Wallingford. "The result of their deliberation was the present tion of a remonstrance to parliament that the command of the army should be entrusted to some person in whom they might all confide; and it was plainly given to understand that the young protector was not that person." The parliament paid no attention to it, and voted that no military meetings should be held without the consent of the protector and the parliament. The officers seeing their danger, immediately sent colonel Desborough to inform Richard that the parliament must be dissolved, and that, if he did not do it, they would. Seeing the danger

417. Who were opposed to Richard's succession? Did Richard possess the qualities requisite for that important office? Who did he appoint for his advisers? What changes were made in the representation? Why was the unauthorised change made? How was it considered? Who intrigued to overthrow Richard? What was the conspiracy called? What procedure did they adopt?



of a refusal, and wanting resolution to defend the title that had been conferred upon him, Richard sent the usher of the black rod to summon the commons to the upper house; but they refused to obey, and voted an adjournment for three days. Notwithstanding this, the parliament was declared to be dissolved, and a proclamation to that effect was immediately published (April 22, 1659). Richard was now virtually deposed and he soon after signed his own abdication in form, "and lived several years after his resignation, at first on the Continent, and afterwards upon his paternal fortune at home. He was thought by the ignorant to be unworthy the happiness of his exaltation; but he knew, by his tranquillity in private, that he had made the most fortunate exchange."

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#### IV. THE "RUMP" AGAIN SUPREME.

418. *Parliamentary government restored, 1659.*—The supreme power was now again vested, not so much by usurpation, as by one of those mutations which are natural to the career of political revolution, in the republican minority of parliament and the military officers. "These determined to replace the remnant or 'rump' of the old parliament which had beheaded the king, and which Cromwell had so disgracefully turned out of the house." Accordingly the general officers of the army published a declaration, inviting the members to return to their seats in parliament and exercise their former power. They thus refreshed and fortified the revolution, by bringing it back to its principles. On the 7th of May, about forty-two of the surviving members of the long parliament, as it stood at Cromwell's usurpation in 1653, proceeded, with Lenthall at their head, to the house of commons, escorted by Lambeth with a military guard. Several of the presbyterian members, excluded in 1648, also proceeded to take their places, with Prynne at their head, but were refused admittance. As if to prove that the spirit which excluded them was still dominant, it met them at the door in the person of colonel Pride (§ 389). There is much to admire in the vitality and energy which still resided in

417. How was it received by parliament? What message did they then send to Richard? How did he act?

418. To whom did the military officers commit the government? Of how many did the "rump" now consist? Who were refused admittance to the house? Who prevented their entrance? What has been before said of colonel Pride?



this mere remnant of the famous long parliament, whatever may have been alleged to the contrary. The first act of this body was to publish a declaration of its purpose to secure liberty, property, and the magistracy, 'without a single person, kingship, or a house of peers.' The military commanders in Scotland and Ireland sent their adhesion, and the restored government had every appearance of stability.

419. *The "Rump" Superseded.*—The first danger which menaced the "Rump" was a royalist insurrection that broke out in Cheshire. But whilst the insurgents were scattered in the field, and all danger from the family of Cromwell disappeared, the commonwealth was hastening to a fatal crisis, through party rivalry and dissension. A schism broke out between the parliament and the military officers. The republicans insisted upon maintaining the supremacy of the civil power, over that of the sword. They began by abolishing the office of lord-general, and then revoked all commissions throughout the army and navy, appointing a committee to choose a new set of officers, who were to receive their commissions from the speaker of the house, who was appointed for that purpose general and admiral. This and other measures to lessen the influence of the military so dissatisfied "the officers of the army that they came to a resolution, usual enough in those times, to dissolve that assembly by which they were so vehemently opposed. Accordingly, Lambert, one of the generals, drew up a chosen body of troops, and placing them in the streets which led to Westminster-hall, when the speaker, Lenthall, proceeded in his carriage to the house, he ordered the horses to be turned, and very civilly conducted him home. The other members were likewise turned back, and the army returned to their quarters to observe a solemn fast, which generally either preceded or attended their outrages." Immediately thereafter, the council of state assembled, and the generals having gained several members to their party, the "rump" parliament was superseded; and it was directed that the officers should re-model the government, and submit it to a free parliament (Oct. 13).

418. What was the first act of the new government? To what end was its policy directed?

419. By whom was the "rump" first menaced? How did the "rump" begin to carry out their principles? What was the result?

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## V. A COMMITTEE OF SAFETY SUPREME.

420. *General Discontent—The Military Oligarchy overthrown.*—The breaking up of the parliament rendered it also necessary to dissolve the council of state. This was done without violence. Twenty-three persons, most of them general officers, were then constituted a Committee of Safety, to discharge the offices both of the legislative and the executive, and the free parliament which had been promised was dispensed with. The supreme power being thus grasped once more by the army, the revolution, as it may be said, had begun over again. The nation, as to government, was in the same condition as at the execution of the king; but the public opinion, the popular feeling, and the state of parties, were wholly different. The public mind was disgusted with the perpetual shiftings of the political scene, and the consequent insecurity of all rights, private and public: the English people abhorring, like all other freemen, the dominion of the sword, were shocked beyond endurance by its last flagrant recurrence, and were now not indisposed to support the restoration of the monarchy. The royalists saw, and encouraged this disposition, and they were inspired with more than usual confidence by a disunion among the military officers, several of whom had made their peace with Charles; while others supported the republican Haselrig, in opposition to the ambitious general Lambert. While these dissensions were going on, general Monk, who was at the head of 8000 veterans in Scotland, declared against the committee of safety; and having prepared his troops to second his views, he addressed from Edinburgh a letter to the ex-speaker, Lenthall, in which 'he called God to witness that the asserting of a commonwealth was the only intent of his heart,' and moved his army towards England, encamping at Coldstream, near Berwick (November). On the first intelligence of Monk's proceedings the committee of safety despatched Lambert with about 12,000 men, who now lay at Newcastle, and prevented his advance. Duped by the protestations of Monk, who waited the course of events beyond the Tweed, the republicans joined and co-operated with him. Admiral Lawson came up the Thames with his squadron as far as

420. What government was now formed by the officers? In what position may the nation be said to have been placed? What was the state of public opinion? What gave hopes to the royalists? Who was Monk? How did he act when informed of the dissolution of parliament?



Gravesend, in the name of the parliament and commonwealth; and Haselrig and Morley, who had obtained possession of Portsmouth and had gained over the troops sent against them, advanced towards London. Alarm and confusion seized the military junta of government. They announced their intention to call a parliament; but it was now too late, power had passed from their hands. The soldiers declared against them, and, putting themselves under the command of the republican officers that had been dismissed, they marched to the house of ex-speaker Lenthall, and saluted him as representative of the parliament and lord-general of the army. Thus terminated the authority of the committee of safety, after having exercised supreme power about ten weeks (Oct. 13 to Dec. 24).

## VI. THE "RUMP" SUPREME FOR THE LAST TIME.

421. *Monk marches to London—The Long-Parliament dissolved.*—The defection of the army from the officers, and the popular feeling in London, were now so decisive, that the indestructible "Rump" resumed its sittings and assumed the government. On general Fairfax declaring for the parliament, the forces at Newcastle deserted to him from Lambert, when he took possession of York and opened a correspondence with Monk, who thereon passed the Tweed with four regiments of horse and six of foot (Jan. 1, 1660). He continued his march southward, his force greatly increasing as he advanced, by soldiers who joined him under the impression that they were adhering to the parliament and the commonwealth, and the "Rump" completed the infatuation by inviting him into the capital. They perceived their error when it was too late to repair it. On Monk arriving at St. Alban's, on the 28th of January, he wrote to the parliament, desiring that every regiment which had taken part with the council of officers, though since returned to its duty, should be removed from London. The "Rump" now saw that Monk would be their master, not their servant, and yet were under the necessity of complying. He there-

420. What were Monk's next proceedings? What events threw the junta of government into confusion? How did they propose to act? Was it done? What did the soldiers do? How long did the committee of safety retain power?

421. With what force did Monk cross the Tweed? What party did he support? What did he gain by it? Was the "Rump" deceived by him? Who were the "Rump"?



fore entered the city, and on his arrival was invited to the house to receive the thanks of parliament. But jealous of his real intentions, they required him to abjure the house of Stuart; to which he replied that it would be an offence against providence to swear never to consent to what providence might ordain; that he had given sufficient proof of his devotion to parliament; and that if they were not satisfied let them try him again. His sincerity was soon put to the test. In February, the citizens had published a declaration that they would pay no taxes until the re-establishment of a full parliament, 'according to the ancient laws of the land.' They had also barricaded their gates to prevent the entrance of troops. The "Rump" ordered Monk to destroy the barricades, and to arrest eleven of the principal citizens: he obeyed, though with reluctance; but the "Rump" declared that he had not done enough, and ordered him to demolish the city gates. Monk now saw that they intended, by making him the instrument of their vengeance, to render him unpopular. He therefore wrote a letter to the speaker Lenthall, requiring him to immediately fill up every vacancy in the house, preparatory to a dissolution and the calling of a new parliament. Then, without waiting for an answer, he marched with his troops and joined the citizens, telling them that his object was to unite his fortune with theirs, and to obtain a full and free parliament. The "Rump" leaders affected great indifference at Monk's procedure; however they requested his return to Whitehall, to which he agreed, on condition that all the excluded members should be allowed to take their seats, that the arrears due to the army should be paid, and that a new parliament should be called for the 20th of April. This was granted, and Monk, in an elaborate speech, declared that a republican form of government was essential to the tranquillity of the nation. This greatly damped the royalists, who had begun to look on Monk as the rainbow of their hopes. But his after conduct showed that he merely made these protestations in order to maintain his influence over the military, who believed that their existence was linked with the commonwealth. By the introduction of the excluded members the presbyterians obtained a considerable majority in the house of commons; they annulled the votes relative to the late king and the house of lords, formed a council of state, in which were many royalists, appointed Monk commander-in-chief of all the forces, and

421. What did the "Rump" require Monk to abjure? Did he do it? Relate his further proceedings, up to the final dissolution of the long-parliament.



voted him the sum of 20,000*l*. On the 16th of March the parliament dissolved itself, after having continued in several forms 19 years, 4 months, and 13 days; and writs were issued for a general election.

422. *Dissimulation of Monk—Fall of the Commonwealth.*—“No persons had hitherto dived into the designs of general Monk. He still persevered in his reserve; and although the calling a new parliament was but, in other words, to restore the king, yet his expressions never once betrayed the secret of his bosom. Nothing but a security of confidence at last extorted the confession from him. He had been intimate with one Morrice, a gentleman of Devonshire, of a sedentary, studious disposition, and with him alone did he deliberate upon the great and dangerous enterprise of the Restoration. Sir John Granville, who had a commission from the king, applied for access to the general; he was desired to communicate his business to Morrice. Granville refused, though twice urged, to deliver his message to any but the general himself; so that Monk, now finding he could depend upon the secrecy of the king's minister, opened to him his whole intentions; but, with his usual caution, still scrupled to commit anything to paper. In consequence of these the king left Belgium, where he very narrowly escaped being detained at Breda by the Spanish governor, under the pretence of treating him with proper respect and formality. From thence he retired into Holland, where he resolved to wait for further advice.” The elections meanwhile were proceeding in England. Influence, intrigue, and money were never in greater activity to decide the returns. The general leaning was to presbyterians and moderates. Several cavaliers were elected, in the face of their disqualification, by vote of the late parliament, passed with the advice of Monk. The electors manifested a general disinclination to republicans. The restoration of the king was the subject of private conversation and secret conference. When the new parliament met on the 25th of April, the majority was soon found to be in favour of royalty. “All this time Monk, with his usual reserve, tried their tempers, and examined the ardour of their wishes; at length he gave directions to Annesley, president of the council, to inform

421. How many years did it exist in one form or another?

422. How had Monk conducted all his measures? Who was in his confidence? To whom did Charles entrust a commission to Monk? Where was the king at that time? In what spirit were the elections carried on? What was the general result of the elections? What measures did Charles now take?



them that one sir John Granville, a servant of the king, had been sent over by his majesty, and was now at the door with a letter to the commons. Nothing could exceed the joy and transport with which this message was received. The members, for a moment, forgot the dignity of their situations, and indulged in a loud acclamation of applause. Granville was called in, and the letter eagerly read. A moment's pause was scarce allowed; all at once the house burst into an universal assent to the king's proposals; and to diffuse the joy more widely, it was voted that the letter and indemnity should immediately be published." The two houses also voted that the fundamental law of England was, and ought to be, king, lords, and commons. It was then agreed to invite Charles to return and receive his crown. 50,000*l.* were sent to him; 10,000*l.* to his next brother, the duke of York; and 5000*l.* to his youngest, the duke of Gloucester. A fleet, under admiral Montague, was sent for Charles; and on the 29th of May, 1660, he landed at Dover, where Monk and a numerous assemblage of nobility were waiting to receive him.

423. *Notable incidents during the Commonwealth unnoticed in the text:—*

(1.) The Commonwealth is a most unsatisfactory period of English history. An army was then first kept up in time of peace. To this circumstance may be attributed the failure of the attempt to establish religious and civil liberty, the objects for which so much blood and treasure had been sacrificed by the community. In place of laying the foundation of religious liberty on the non-interference of the civil power in matters theological, whether as to the manner of worship or the opinions expressed, so long as these were not opposed to social order and well-being; and of civil liberty in the participation of the whole community in the functions of legislation, and in a ready means of enforcing the responsibility of the executive; those who usurped the administration of government, whether the residue of the commons elected in 1640, Cromwell, or the military officers, were each only bent on retaining it in their own hands without being controlled by the community. The Commonwealth was nothing else than a military despotism. The parliament was made subservient to Cromwell. After his death, when the generals found that a government by force could not be maintained, when a complete and free representation of the people must be established, then the most cunning and selfish of their number sold the country for his own enrichment, regardless alike of his reiterated protestations and of its future liberties.

(2.) The subject now most deserving of notice in connection with the civil war and the Commonwealth is the change in the holding of land which then commenced. Until then each knight's fee of land was held on condition of providing and maintaining a soldier for the service of

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422. How was Charles's message received by the new parliament? Relate what followed.



the state for 60 days in each year; but as it was necessary for each party, the king and the parliament, to raise a military force from among their own partisans, knight's service became inapplicable. Monthly assessments in lieu thereof were levied by parliament on all real and personal property for the maintenance of the army and navy. These varied, according to the exigencies of the times, from £35,000 to £100,000 a month; the proportion of the latter being £70,000 a month on England, £18,000 on Ireland, and £12,000 on Scotland. The rate at which these assessments were levied in England and Ireland are at present unknown, but the maximum rate on Scotland appears to have been 40 per cent., and the minimum 20 per cent. on the actual land rent as ascertained by commissioners in 1645-50. As this heavy assessment is not complained of by contemporary writers, there is reason to believe that it was a less charge on each landholder of Scotland than the expense of furnishing and maintaining his quota of soldiers.

(3.) From the best information that can be obtained, it appears that in the nineteen years from the breaking out of the civil war until the restoration, there was raised by assessments and taxes in England and Wales about £83,331,198, or, one year with another, £4,385,850, which was nearly five times the amount levied for Charles I., the half of which was obtained by various contributions from the land.

(4.) The monthly assessments on real and personal estate were levied by an equal rate, every £20 in money or other personal estate being assessed the like charge as was laid on every twenty shillings yearly rent of land. The other principal sources of revenue during the Commonwealth were—the profits of wardships, fines of alienation, and other feudal prerogatives, which were as rigorously exacted as during the monarchy; the customs' duties which, by duties on coals and currants then imposed, produced above one million a year; excise duties on liquors, bread, meat, salt, and many other necessities, were for the first time imposed, it being at the same time solemnly declared that they should be altogether abolished at the end of the war; the remodelled post-office, which yielded £10,000 a year, and saved an annual expense of £7000 that had before been paid for the maintenance of postmasters.

(5.) By the old law of parliament, every member was entitled to receive wages from the place he represented to defray his expenses; but the members of the long-parliament, when it assumed the government of the country, voted to each member for his private use, at first £4 a week, and afterwards, it is said, distributed among themselves, out of the public treasury, about £300,000 a year. Large sums were also granted as free gifts; and enormous frauds upon every branch of the revenue, and every article of expenditure, were said to have been perpetrated with impunity.

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## CHARLES II.

Began to reign May 29th, 1660;—died February 6th, 1685.

424. *Charles's general Character.*—"Charles II. landed at Dover on the 25th of May, 1660, and made a triumphant

424. In what year was Charles II. restored?



entry into London on the 29th, which was his birth-day. An innumerable concourse of people lined the way wherever he passed, and rent the air with their acclamations. They had been so long distracted by unrelenting factions, oppressed and alarmed by a succession of tyrannies, that they could no longer suppress these emotions of delight to behold their constitution restored; or rather, like a phoenix, appearing more beautiful and vigorous from the ruins of its former conflagration. When Charles came to the throne he was thirty years of age, possessed of an agreeable person, an elegant address, and an engaging manner. His whole demeanour and behaviour was well calculated to support and increase popularity. Accustomed, during his exile, to live cheerfully among his courtiers, he carried the same companionable familiarities to the throne; and from the levity of his temper, no injuries were dreaded from his former resentments. But it was soon found that all these advantages were merely superficial. His indolence and love of pleasure made him averse to all kinds of business; his familiarities were prostituted to the worst as well as the best of his subjects; and he took no care to reward his former friends, as he had taken few steps to be avenged of his former enemies."

425. *Official Appointments.*—Charles's first measure was to appoint the great officers of state, and to constitute a privy council consisting of 30 persons. The great officers of state were, his next brother the duke of York, lord high admiral and lord warden of the Cinque Ports; general Monk, continued captain-general of all the land forces of the kingdom; sir Edward Hyde (Clarendon), lord chancellor; the earl of Southampton, lord treasurer; sir Edward Nicholas and sir William Morrice, chief secretaries of state; the marquis of Ormond, lord steward; and the earl of Manchester, lord chamberlain. The king's bosom councillors, if that term may be applied in the case of one who did not believe in virtue, and therefore could not frankly confide, were Hyde and Ormond, who had attended him in exile; Southampton, who had remained in England to promote his cause; and lord Digby (afterwards earl of Bristol), who was not even a privy councillor, but influenced the king as a favourite, and was the enemy of Hyde.

424. What popular qualities did Charles possess? Why were no injuries dreaded from his former resentments? What rendered him averse to all kinds of business? Did he show judgment in the choice of his friends? How did he treat his former friends, and enemies?

425. What was Charles's first measure? Who were appointed to the great offices of state?



426. *The Convention constituted a Parliament—Bill of Indemnity.*—The first act of the convention, after the restoration, was to pass a bill declaring the parliament elected in 1640 fully dissolved and determined,\* and the lords and commons then sitting the two houses of parliament: in other words, *to constitute that a parliament which was hitherto a convention*—with the proviso, that the session should not determine with the king's assent thereto, a procedure which equally disregarded the unrepealed statute of Charles I., and the royal prerogatives that parliament must be called by the king's writ of summons, and that his assenting to a bill did as a matter of course put an end to the session (1 Blackstone, 187). This convention-parliament was therefore no more a true parliament than any that assembled during the commonwealth. But as it was entirely subservient to the king, he made it his instrument to pass various arbitrary measures, more especially the bill of indemnity, which he had promised, in his declaration to the commissioners sent to him at Breda, would be left to the determination of a regular parliament to be summoned for that purpose. This most flagitious bill, as it finally passed, excepted from pardon nineteen persons who saved themselves by flight, seven who were admitted to mercy through corrupt influence, and twenty-nine who were brought to trial at the Old Bailey, and convicted as traitors, ten of whom were executed. Several, though dead, were attainted, and their estates confiscated. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw were dug from their graves, dragged on hurdles to Tyburn, the place of common execution, and there hung on the gallows until the evening, when they were taken down. Their heads were then cut off and their trunks buried under the gallows, the heads being afterwards fixed in front of Westminster-hall. All who had been actively opposed to royalty were subsequently persecuted, among whom the patriotic and immortal Milton was included.

427. *Feudal Tenures abolished—The Revenue settled.*—"This was the time for the king to have made himself independent

426. What was the first act of the convention after the restoration? What is said of that procedure? What use did the king make of it? How were the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw treated? Who were these persons? How was Milton treated?

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\* In May, 1641, Charles I. most unadvisedly passed an act to continue the parliament then in being till such time as it should please to dissolve itself, a power which proved fatal to him, and gave a legal colour to the nineteen years' existence of the long-parliament.



of all parliaments; and it is said that Southampton, one of his ministers, had thought of procuring for his master from the servile commons the grant of a revenue of two millions a year, which would have effectually rendered him absolute; but in this his views were obstructed by the earl of Clarendon, who, though attached to the king, was still more the friend of liberty and the laws. Charles, however, was no way interested in these opposite views of his ministers; he only desired money, in order to prosecute his pleasures: and provided he had that, he little regarded the manner in which it was obtained." Accordingly, the convention-parliament did not forget their own interests. They abolished the feudal tenures, which had been continuously rendered by the landholders for nearly six hundred years, and which were payable to the crown just as tithe is payable to the clergy, or copyhold profits and other rents to the landholders, and with this similarity as compared with these, that the feudal profits were a fixed proportion to the annual value of lands at the time the payment became due. The feudal tenures were doubtless a heavy charge on the landholders under the state, just as the payment of rent is to the tenant-occupiers or farmers under them. The unconditional 'taking away of the court of wards and liveries, and tenures *in capite*, and by knight service, and purveyance,' by the statute 12 Car. II. c. 24, is one of those acts of national injustice which has still to be redressed. The shamelessness of that procedure was aggravated by the revenue thereby lost being principally made up by the substitution of a *hereditary* excise on beer and ale brewed for *sale*, while that brewed in families for their own consumption was exempt. Thus, the national beverage of the commonalty was made hereditarily subject to taxation, that the nobility and gentry might be freed from the obligations on which they held their estates.\* As most of the calamities of the former reign were occasioned by the insufficiency of the royal income, the convention-parliament voted Charles II. a revenue of 1,200,000*l.* a year, and granted a poll-tax of sixpence on every person above sixteen years of age, not

427. What did Southampton propose at this time? Who opposed it? What were the king's wishes on the subject? Why were the feudal tenures abolished? How long had they continued? Of what nature were they? Was it just to abolish them without placing an equivalent rent-charge on the land?

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\* In those continental nations in which the feudal tenures have been abolished, an equivalent land-tax is levied. In France, the land-tax is about one-fourth of the rack rent of the land; while in England it is less than one thirtieth.



receiving alms, for disbanding the army, which then amounted to about 60,000. After the various bills for the settlement of the revenue had received the king's assent, the convention-parliament was dissolved (Dec. 29, 1660).

428. *Reaction in Scotland—Executions—Episcopacy re-established.*—The restoration encountered little difficulty either in Ireland or in Scotland. In Ireland, Charles restored, not only the government of the state by lords justices, but that of the church by bishops, of his sole authority. In Scotland, he restored the committee of estates\* (or parliament) of 1651, and invested them with the government. There the king's prerogative was recognised to the extreme extent, in all cases civil and ecclesiastical, and every act of resistance proclaimed high treason. Thus, all for which Charles I. had laboured in vain through years of intrigue and bloodshed, was conceded at a few successive sittings of the Scottish parliament. At last, growing tired of rescinding one by one the acts of former parliaments, they negatived by wholesale all parliaments themselves that had been held since 1633, as disloyal, unconstitutional, and of no force. By this frantic procedure all confidence even in the abstract principle of government was destroyed, and the whole labour of achieving civil and religious liberty was to be undergone anew. The supremacy in things spiritual having been established, the restoration of episcopacy was a natural consequence. Charles had already declared that presbyterianism was not a fit religion for a gentleman; his hatred of the presbyterian church of Scotland in particular was no secret; and in his ministers he had unscrupulous advisers for its overthrow. To intimidate resistance three victims were selected for the scaffold: the marquis of Argyle, the highest in station and renown; James Guthrie, minister of Stirling, the author of the work entitled "Causes of God's Wrath;" and Gowan, an obscure military officer, who had deserted to Cromwell in the second civil war. The able and patriotic Argyle had been among the foremost in recalling Charles to Scotland, and had presided at his coronation at

428. To whom was the government of Scotland confided? What measures were then adopted? Was Charles opposed to presbyterianism? What did he say of it? How was it sought to intimidate the presbyterians?

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\* The committee of estates, or of parliament, was composed of four representatives from each of the three estates—the lay peers, the clerical peers, and the commons—to whom the conduct of all parliamentary business was committed.



Scoone; but he had also required his subscription of the covenant, and was the leader of the Scottish presbyterians. He was arraigned upon fourteen charges, as a traitor to the late king, the author of the principal commotions in Scotland during the civil war, and an ally of Cromwell against the royalist interests during the late usurpation. These were charges under which most of his judges might themselves have been empaneled; but his chief and real offence consisted in his large estates, which the lord-commissioner Middleton had resolved to appropriate. It was in vain, therefore, that the marquis justified his political conduct by arguments that could not be refuted: he was sentenced to die the death of a traitor, and his head to replace that of the marquis of Montrose, at the end of the Tolbooth of Edinburgh. On hearing his sentence, he said, 'I had the honour to set the crown upon the king's head, and now he hastens me to a better crown than his own; nor can you deprive me of that eternal indemnity which you may require yourselves.' He went to the scaffold in the same spirit, saying to the friends who accompanied him thither, 'I could die like a Roman, but choose rather to die as a Christian' (May 27). Some days after, Guthrie and Gowan were also executed; Guthrie's real offences were his having pronounced sentence of excommunication against Middleton in 1651, by command of the general assembly, and the opposition that was dreaded from him to the re-establishment of episcopacy. Three months after these executions, a proclamation announced the restoration of the bishops, and the prohibition of all meetings of presbyteries and synods. Four prelates were then nominated, and after being consecrated at London, they returned to Scotland to exercise their spiritual functions. In a short time the number was increased to fourteen, and all ministers of the church who had not received episcopal ordination were ordered to receive it from their respective bishops, under pain of deprivation. The primate, archbishop Sharp, affirmed that ten ministers would not be found to dissent; but when the season of trial arrived, nearly four hundred, or more than one-third, of the parochial clergy abandoned their livings. The dispossessed, reduced to the condition of apostles, continued still to preach in private houses, in the barns of the farmers, and in the fields; and throughout the west of Scotland the conventicles began to arise, in which the presbyterian spirit was to be nursed into fresh hardihood, and prepared for future conflict and triumph.

428. When was episcopacy restored? What is understood by the term episcopacy? What ecclesiastical measures followed?



429. *The pensionary Parliament*, 1661.—The submissive convention-parliament, which Charles so speedily dissolved, from doubts having arisen as to its legality, was succeeded by a regularly summoned parliament, which met on the 8th of May, 1661, and continued its existence for the unconstitutional period of seventeen years.\* This parliament, which is branded in history with the designation of *the pensionary parliament*, was so decidedly royalist as to wholly overpower the before triumphant presbyterians, only about fifty-three of their party having been returned. In the house of commons, business commenced with an order that the sacrament should be taken according to the rites of the episcopal church by each member, on pain of exclusion; next, that the presbyterian 'Solemn League and Covenant' should be burned in triplicate by the common hangman at Palace-yard, in Cheapside, and at the Royal Exchange, and afterwards over all England; and that all the acts of the long-parliament should be burned by the common hangman in the middle of Westminster-hall, while the courts were sitting. These votes produced no serious or visible manifestation of discontent—a phenomenon only to be accounted for from the fact that it is a small minority of stirring and superior spirits who at all times actuate social masses and achieve revolutions, and that the republican leaders had been removed by death and exile. These preliminary steps were quickly followed by enactments in the same spirit. Bills were passed declaring it treason to imprison or harm the king's person, or depose him from his kingly title; and a high misdemeanor to call the king a papist or heretic, or to deny the dissolution of the parliament elected in 1640, or to assert the legality of the solemn league and covenant, or the legislative authority of either house without the king; for limiting and restricting the right of petitioners to the king or either house of parliament; for imposing restrictions on the press to restrain seditious and controversial publications; for confiscating the estates of the 'regicides,' three of whom (Monson, Mildmay

429. Why did Charles dissolve the convention-parliament? What was the new parliament called? Which party now became triumphant? How did they exercise their power? Why were their opponents so submissive?

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\* After the first session of this parliament, all acts in its subsequent sessions were undoubtedly illegal. The statute of 1641 having been repealed, the law of parliament again became as it had previously been—namely, that a parliament had only one session, new summonses and new writs of election being issued for each parliament or sessions. As the phrase now would be, parliaments were annually elected. See Chitty's note to 1 Blackstone, 153.



and Wallop) were ordered to be degraded of their honours and titles, and drawn on sledges with ropes about their necks from the Tower to Tyburn and back again, and to remain prisoners in the Tower for life; and lastly, bills were passed to confirm the indemnity act of the convention-parliament, and to grant a supply 'by free and voluntary contributions of the king's subjects.' The parliament was then *adjourned* by the king on the 30th of July to the 20th of November, an exercise of power that had been refused by former parliaments to the sovereign.

430. *Corporation and Uniformity Acts, 1662.*—On the reassembling of parliament on the 20th of November, the bishops took their seats as peers, for the first time since their exclusion by the long-parliament. The crusade of the commons against the presbyterians had been somewhat checked, before the adjournment, by the peers. It was now renewed with fresh vigour. A bill was passed by the commons 'for governing and reforming corporations.' This reform was to be effected by a declaration, which should be subscribed by all corporate officers, on pain of removal, that the solemn league and covenant was unlawful, and that it was traitorous to take arms against the king or those commissioned by him. The test was taken by many presbyterians; and those conforming politicians may be regarded as the parent stock of the party afterwards known by the name of Whigs. The conformity act, which proved a death-blow to presbyterianism, soon followed, passed both houses, and received the royal assent (May 19). This bill required, under pain of losing their ecclesiastical preferments, that every clergyman should be re-ordained, if he had not before received episcopal ordination; should declare his assent to everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer; should take the oath of canonical obedience; should abjure the solemn league and covenant; and should renounce the principle of taking arms, on any pretence whatsoever, against the king. It also reinstated the episcopal church in the same condition in which it stood before the commencement of the civil war; and as the old persecuting laws of Elizabeth still subsisted in their full rigour, and as new clauses of a like nature were now added, all the promises of toleration made by the king when at Breda were thereby eluded and broken. The feast of St. Bartholomew was fixed for the clergy either

429. What unauthorised power did the king exercise?

430. How long had the bishops been excluded from parliament? (§ 375). What did the corporation act impose? What was its effect? What did the uniformity act require?



relinquishing their livings, or signing the articles of uniformity required of them. When the 24th of August came, about 2000 of the parochial clergymen, or one-fifth of the whole number, took leave of their congregations and sacrificed their livings to their conscience, much to the astonishment of the court and the bishops. These ejected ministers were afterwards called Non-conformists, by which name the presbyterian dissenters in England are still designated.

431. *Charles weds Catherine of Portugal, 1662.*—Among the consequences of the restoration was a deplorable change in the manners of the nation. The court became a scene of licentiousness, the people copied their superiors, and immorality stalked forth without its mask. The most reasonable of the king's counsellors saw with pain the scandal caused by his amours, and earnestly persuaded him to marry; and at last Charles was tempted by the offer of the king of Portugal's sister, with a portion of 500,000*l.*, with the possession of Tangier, in Africa; of Bombay, in the East Indies; and of a free trade to the Portuguese colonies. The king of Spain, alarmed at the proposed alliance, opposed it by every means in his power; Louis XIV. of France, on the contrary, seeing that it was his interest to promote it, offered to give Charles a considerable sum of money to purchase votes in the parliament, to lend him 50,000*l.*, and to furnish 2,000,000 livres in the event of a war with Spain. After several months of intrigue on both sides, the council decided for the Portuguese match; and the earl of Sandwich was sent with a fleet to convey the princess to England. This decision caused so much acrimony between the French and Spanish ambassadors, that a rencontre took place between their partizans on Tower-hill, in which more than fifty persons were killed or wounded. On the arrival of Catherine of Portugal at Spithead (May 24), Charles went to meet her, and though she was not beautiful, her amiable qualities prepossessed him in her favour. She became an exemplary wife; but Charles did not know the value of domestic happiness: he returned to his licentious courses, and the amiable Catherine was neglected, and often obliged to be a witness of his profligacy.

432. *Sale of Dunkirk—The Conventicle Act.*—A court aban-

430. How many of the parochial clergy refused their assent to the uniformity act? What name did these dissentients receive?

431. What social change was produced by the restoration? Why was Charles induced to marry? Who opposed this match? Who favoured it? What was Catherine's character? How did Charles treat his queen?



doned to reckless profligacy was naturally reduced to great straits for money, and, as naturally, not over scrupulous as to the means by which it was procured. This led to one of the most unpopular transactions of the time, the sale of Dunkirk to Louis XIV. of France for 5,000,000 livres, or about 208,444*l*. Charles reaped the full fruits of this bargain only in its disgrace. He required to be paid in ready money, and Louis would not advance more than 2,000,000; but it was at length agreed that he should give bills for the remainder, payable at different dates, so that Charles might get them discounted (Oct. 1662). On the bills being given, a secret agent of Louis, professing to act on his own account, as a banker, bought them up at a discount of 800,000 livres. To divert public attention from the odious and unpopular sale of Dunkirk, a republican conspiracy to overthrow the government was said to have been discovered. Under that pretence, six miserable victims were executed, and hundreds of suspected persons were imprisoned. This suspicious and arbitrary proceeding passed lightly over the mind of the people and the parliament; but a ferment was excited by the next measures of the court—the publication of a declaration of indulgence, and the introduction of a bill into the upper house for enabling the king to dispense, at his discretion, with the oaths of submission to the established church; the real object of both measures was to enable him to relieve the catholics. Both houses were immediately in a flame, and language was employed in the discussion highly offensive to the king. In place of proceeding with the bill, the parliament voted an address, demanding the strict execution of all penal laws against catholics, dissenters, and all sectaries (April, 1663). A bill called the Conventicle Act was soon after passed, forbidding all meetings of more than five individuals (except a family), for any religious purpose not in conformity with the Book of Common Prayer (May, 1664). The punishment was, for the first offence, a fine of five pounds, or three months' imprisonment; for the second, it was double; and for the third, the fine was 100*l*., or transportation for seven years. This odious act of intolerance was immediately followed by a general religious persecution.

433. *The Dutch War—Fall of Clarendon—The Cabal Ministry.*—As Charles was always in want of money, "it was

432. For what sum was Dunkirk sold? Was it a popular act? What was done to divert the public attention from it? Was no outcry raised? What were the next measures of the government? Were they approved of? How did parliament then act?



probably with a view of recruiting the supply for his pleasures, that he was induced in 1664 to declare war against the Dutch, as the money appointed for that purpose would go through his hands. In this naval war, which continued to rage for some years with great fierceness, much blood was spilt, and great treasure expended, until at last a treaty was concluded at Breda, by which the colony of New York was ceded by the Dutch to the English, and reckoned as a most valuable acquisition (1667). But this treaty was considered as inglorious to the English, since they failed in gaining any redress upon the complaints which gave rise to it—depredations on merchant vessels and on the foreign establishments of the African company. Lord Clarendon, particularly, gained a share of blame, both for having advised an unnecessary war, and then for concluding a disgraceful peace. He had been long declining in the king's favour, and he was no less displeasing to the majority of the people. Accordingly, the earl's enemies did not fail to step in and effect his entire overthrow. A charge was opened against him in the house of commons, by Mr. (afterwards sir Edward) Seymour, consisting of seventeen articles. These, which were only a catalogue of the popular rumours before-mentioned, appeared, at first sight, false or frivolous. However, Clarendon finding the popular torrent, united to the violence of power, running with impetuosity against him, thought proper to withdraw to France" (1667), where he remained under the ban of banishment until his death in 1674. "Having thus got rid of his able but unscrupulous minister, the king soon after resigned himself to the direction of a 'set of men, who afterwards went by the appellation of the cabal,' from the initials of the names of which it was composed (April, 1670) These were—sir Thomas Clifford, a man of a daring and impetuous spirit, rendered more dangerous by eloquence and intrigue; lord Ashley, afterwards better known as lord Shaftesbury, turbulent, ambitious, subtle, and enterprising; the duke of Buckingham, gay, capricious, of some wit, and great vivacity; lord Arlington, a man of very moderate capacity, with good intentions, but wanting courage to persevere in them; and,

433. What induced Charles to declare war against the Dutch? What colony was ceded to the British at the conclusion of this war? Why was this treaty considered inglorious? On whom did the blame chiefly fall? Of how many articles did the charge against Clarendon in the house of commons consist? Were they well founded? Why did he withdraw to France? To whose direction did Charles then resign himself? By what appellation was this set of men known? Why had they that name? What was the character of this ministry? Relate the peculiar character of each.



the duke of Lauderdale, not defective in natural and still less in acquired talents, but ambitious, obstinate, insolent, sullen, and dishonest."

434. *The Great Plague—The Great Fire of London, 1665–6.*—"The gloom which hung over the public mind by the Dutch war was still further increased by two fearful calamities. In 1665 the plague broke out in London, and raged so dreadfully that 68,596 persons died within the city; it also extended to the country, becoming especially fatal at Colchester, Norwich, Cambridge, Winchester, and Salisbury. The following year was as fearfully distinguished by the great fire of London, in which 89 churches, 400 streets, and 13,200 houses were consumed. The ruins of the city extended over 436 acres, from the Tower along the river to the Temple, and from the north-east gate along the city wall to Holborn-bridge, over Fleet-ditch. The property destroyed was computed at about 10,000,000*l*. Prompted by blind rage, some ascribed the guilt of this accidental conflagration to the republicans, others to the catholics; though it is not easy to conceive how the burning of London could serve the purposes of either party. As the papists were the chief objects of public detestation, the rumour which threw the guilt on them was favourably received by the people. No proof, however, or even presumption, after the strictest inquiry by a committee of parliament, ever appeared to authorise such a calumny; yet in order to give countenance to the popular prejudice, the inscription engraved by authority on the London monument, ascribed the calamity to this hated sect. This clause was erased by James II. after his accession; but was again restored after the revolution. So credulous, as well as obstinate, are the people in believing everything which flatters their prevailing passions."

435. *Charles a Pensioner—The Exchequer shut—The Dutch attacked.*—From the accession of the cabal ministry may be dated that course of baseness and duplicity which characterises the reign of Charles II. At the close of the late Dutch war he had become the secret accomplice of Louis XIV. he soon after accepted the wages of that prince, to enable him to destroy the religion, liberties, and laws of his country. A treaty for these purposes was ratified in June, 1670. Its

434. How many persons died of the plague in the city? In what other places was it particularly fatal? How many churches were burned down? How many houses? Over what area did the ruins extend? What was the computed value of the property destroyed? To whom was the fire attributed? What was erected to perpetuate the memory of it?



principal stipulations were—that Charles should publicly profess himself a catholic, that he should join Louis against the Dutch, that to enable him to suppress any insurrection arising in consequence of his change of religion, Louis should assist him with two millions of livres, besides an annual subsidy of 200,000*l.*, and with an army of 6000 men, and that the united French and English fleets should be placed under the command of the duke of York. To these were added several other articles of minor importance. To carry out this treaty, Charles demanded from the parliament, which met in October, 1670, a supply for the ostensible purpose of fitting out a fleet to protect the coast, and to render him capable of opposing, in case of need, the attempts of France and Holland. Under these pretences, which exhibited an untruthfulness far beyond the utmost justifiable stretch of political manœuvre, Charles obtained a vote of two millions and a half. The parliament had never before been in a more liberal humour; and never was it less merited. After its prorogation, on the 20th of April to the 16th of that month in the following year (1672), the two sceptred conspirators against the liberties of England and the existence of Holland commenced their preparations. The liberality of parliament had supplied the means of equipping a fleet. At the same time new levies were made, and the chief fortresses were garrisoned with such regiments as afforded some pledge of their fidelity to the court against the nation. The militia of Scotland were organised and held in readiness to march into England at the pleasure of the court. The duke of York now openly declared himself a Romanist; but the king hung back, when summoned by Louis to declare his religion, and to commence hostilities against the Dutch. Louis's first act in that infamous war was to seize Lorraine and to depose the duke; while Charles resorted to two preliminary proceedings, of which the infamy is almost without parallel. Having expended the parliamentary supply of 2,500,000*l.* in discharge of his urgent debts and in his warlike preparations, he gave his assent to shut up the Exchequer. By this means he defrauded the bankers and other wealthy individuals of about 1,328,526*l.*, on the ground that the safety of the kingdom rendered it necessary to forbid the payment of any money from the exchequer, promising however that all

435. What were the principal stipulations of Charles's base treaty with Louis? Upon what pretence did the king demand a supply? What preliminary measures were taken by Charles before commencing hostilities against the Dutch? What by Louis?



creditors should receive interest at the rate of *six per cent.* This proceeding gave such a shock to trade, that many of the bankers, who had placed their money in the hands of government, failed; while hundreds of persons were reduced to misery (Jan., 1672). Some weeks after, Charles's ministers, having ascertained that the Dutch Smyrna fleet was returning to Holland, determined to capture it even before a declaration of war, and ordered admiral Holmes to collect all the vessels he could find for that purpose. The Smyrna fleet, of seventy sail, with cargoes valued at a million and a half sterling, was met off the Isle of Wight, when the English admiral is said to have invited the Dutch admiral and chief officers on board his ship; but Van Ness, already warned by the States, declined this perfidious courtesy. Holmes then attacked the Dutch with great fury, when he was bravely repulsed for two days by Van Ness, who saved his convoy with only slight loss (March, 1672). Thus, the shame of an act, which success could not relieve, was aggravated by failure. A declaration of war immediately followed on the part both of Charles and Louis.

436. *The Second Dutch War—Test Act—Fall of the Cabal Ministry.*—The declaration of indulgence issued by Charles, under the pretence of promoting concord between his subjects of all creeds, but doubtless to prepare the way for the establishment or toleration of popery, and the subsequent hostilities against the Dutch, so unwarranted by any provocation, so ominous of future schemes still more dark and dangerous, finally opened the eyes of all men of integrity. On the meeting of parliament, in February, 1673, after a prorogation of almost two years, Charles demanded supplies to carry on the war against the Dutch, affirmed that his Indulgence to Dissenters had had a good effect, and intimated that he would allow of no modification of it, as his supreme dispensing power was not only inherent in him, but declared and recognised by several statutes. On the next day, after a supply of 1,200,000*l.* was voted to carry on the war, the house of commons took into consideration that part of the king's speech which related to the declaration of indulgence. After a stormy debate a resolution was carried by 160 to 116, 'that penal statutes in matters ecclesiastical cannot be suspended but by acts of parliament.' This reso-

435. What consequences followed on shutting up the exchequer? Was the attack of the Dutch Smyrna fleet a justifiable act?

436. What were the measures of Charles's government which opened the eyes of the public? What did Charles affirm in his speech to parliament? What resolution was passed in consequence?



ution placed the dominion of the church beyond the reach of the king's dispensing power, without regard to the temporal liberties of the people. On an address and petition for satisfaction being presented to the king, he reasserted his prerogative, as one enjoyed by his predecessors, declared that his sole object was to relieve protestant dissenters, and said that he was ready to do so in a parliamentary way. The commons rejoined that he was misled by his advisers, and requested a more satisfactory answer. Only one of the king's ministers, lord Arlington, was in favour of concession; while the other four (Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, and Lauderdale) urged him to stick to his declaration as he had pledged himself in his speech. Buckingham, as president of the north, had a military force at his disposal; Lauderdale had the militia of Scotland ready armed to pass the border; and the duke of York was lord high admiral. Thus supported, Charles appealed to the lords against the commons, who affirmed by their vote that he had given a sufficient answer. The attitude of both parties was now such that one or the other must give way with a serious loss of political and moral influence. The French ambassador, who saw that a quarrel between the king and the house of commons would oblige him to abandon the Dutch war, advised Charles to yield, and offered, as an inducement, a present extraordinary succour in money, and promised troops to aid in enslaving his subjects at a more convenient time. Charles thereon cancelled his declaration in council with his own hands, and assured parliament, through lord chancellor (Ashley) Shaftesbury, in the house of lords, that it 'should never be drawn into example or consequence.' This success was immediately followed up by the famous *Test Act*, which provided that all persons refusing to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, the sacrament according to the rites of the church of England, and the declaration against transubstantiation, should be disqualified for all offices, civil and military (March, 1673). This enactment is the more remarkable that it obtained the support of the presbyterian members, who thereby submitted to an act which struck at their religious liberty in common with the catholics. By it the Anglican church was unexpectedly invested with a dominant power. The hierarchy could indulge in the contemplation of dissident conscience, protestants or papists, either bowing to the yoke or enduring penalties and persecutions: the laity had

436. How was Charles advised to act in this crisis? What did the Test act provide? What were its immediate effects? What else?



the profitable monopoly of office, civil and military. The Test act broke up the cabal ministry, and obliged the duke of York to resign the command of the fleet. It also directly contributed to the restoration of peace with Holland. Hatred to popery having been thereby stimulated, the commons addressed his majesty to prevent his brother's marriage with the catholic princess Mary of Modena. But as the marriage was already contracted by proxy, Charles declined to interfere, whereon the commons refused to grant the supplies demanded to carry on the war. This procedure obliged Charles to conclude a separate treaty of peace with the Dutch in February, 1674, on terms not unsatisfactory to either nation. The unpopularity of this war was increased by its indecisive character. During its continuance, four great naval battles were fought, in which the advantage was adjudged on the Continent to have been in favour of the Dutch.

437. *Danby, Prime Minister—The Suborners—Titus Oates.*—The earl of Danby, who became prime minister on the fall of the cabal, although opposed to popery and to the aggrandisement of France, failed to obtain the confidence of the house of commons, from the hollow and suspicious policy which characterised his administration, from 1674 to 1678. It is now certain that he connived at the king's secret receipt of money from Louis XIV. as the price of his neutrality in the interest of France, and to enable him to resist the disposition of parliament in favour of the Dutch. He also resorted to the most systematic corruption to weaken the hostility to the court. Religious zeal was therefore stimulated by the opposition, by this time called Whigs, for the purpose of faction and intrigue, "and discontents of the nation were soon vented without restraint: the apprehensions of a popish successor, an abandoned court, and a parliament which, though sometimes assertors of liberty, yet having now continued for seventeen years without change, naturally rendered the minds of mankind timid and suspicious, and they only wanted objects on which to wreak their ill-humour. When in this spirit, the English either find objects of suspicion or make them. On the 12th of August, 1678, one Kirby, a chemist, accosted the king as he was walking in St. James's park. 'Sir,' said he, 'keep within the company; your

436. Why did the commons object to the marriage of the duke of York with the princess of Modena? Why did Charles refuse to interfere? What did the commons then do? What followed? Was the Dutch war popular?

437. Why was lord Danby distrusted? What procedure was adopted by the opposition to excite a clamour against Danby? What excited the fears and discontent of the nation?



enemies have a design upon your life, and you may be shot in this very walk.' Being questioned in consequence of this strange intimation, he offered to produce one Dr. Tongue, a weak, credulous clergyman, who had told him, that two persons, named Grove and Pickering, were engaged to murder the king; and that Sir George Wakeman, the queen's physician, had undertaken the same task by poison. Tongue was introduced to the king with a bundle of papers relating to this pretended conspiracy, and was referred to the lord treasurer Danby. He there declared that the papers were thrust under his door; and he afterwards asserted that he knew the author of them, who desired that his name might be concealed, as he dreaded the resentment of the Jesuits. To the king, this information appeared so vague and unsatisfactory, that he concluded the whole was a fiction. However, Tongue went again to lord Danby, and told him, that a packet of letters, written by Jesuits concerned in the plot, was that night to be put into the post-house for Windsor, directed to one Bedingfield, a Jesuit, who was confessor to the duke of York, and who resided there. These letters had actually been received a few hours before by the duke, but he had shown them to the king as a forgery, of which he neither knew the drift nor the meaning. The fountain of all this dreadful intelligence was one Titus Oates, who was produced soon after, and, with seeming reluctance, came to give his evidence. This Titus Oates was an abandoned miscreant, obscure, illiterate, vulgar, and indigent. He had been once indicted for perjury, was afterwards chaplain on board a man of war, and dismissed for unnatural practices. He then professed himself a Roman catholic, and crossed the sea to St. Omer's, where he was for some time maintained in the English seminary of that city. At a time that he was supposed to have been entrusted with a secret involving the fate of kings, he was allowed to remain in such necessity, that Kirby was obliged to supply him with daily bread. To turn the public discontent he had two methods to pursue—either to ingratiate himself, by this information, with the ministry, or to alarm the people. He chose the latter method. He went, therefore, dressed for the occasion in his clerical robes, with his two companions (Tongue and Kirby), to Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, a noted and active justice of the peace, and before him deposed to a narrative dressed up in terrors fit to make an impression on the vulgar:—That the Pope, on account of

437. Relate the conduct and evidence of Kirby—and of Tongue. What was the character of Titus Oates? What deposition did he make before Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey?



the heresy of the prince and people, had assumed the sovereignty of these kingdoms; that the king was condemned as an heretic, and was to be shot with silver bullets; that the duke of York was to be offered the crown, on condition of extirpating the protestant religion; upon his refusal, 'To pot James must go,' as the Jesuits were said to express it. This dreadful information, sufficiently marked with absurdity, vulgarity, and contradiction, made Titus Oates the favourite of the people, notwithstanding, during his examination before the council, he so betrayed the grossness of his impostures, that he contradicted himself in every step of his narration. Still, a great number of the Jesuits mentioned by him were immediately taken into custody. Coleman, secretary to the duchess of York, who was said to have acted so strenuous a part in the conspiracy, surrendered himself, and some of his papers were secured by Oates's directions.

437.\* *Sir E. Godfrey murdered—The Suborner Bedloe.*—During this excitement a circumstance occurred which seemed to put it beyond a doubt that Oates's narrative was nothing but the truth. Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey, who had been so active in unravelling the whole mystery of the popish machinations, after having been missing for some days, was found dead in a ditch, near Primrose-hill, with his own sword run through his body, a livid crease round his neck, and his pockets unrifled. The cause of his death remains, and must still continue, a secret; but the people, already enraged against the papists, did not hesitate a moment to ascribe it to them. Even the better sort of people were infected with this vulgar prejudice; and such was the general conviction of popish guilt, that no person, with any regard to personal safety, could express the least doubt concerning the information of Oates, or the murder of Godfrey. Even the parliament, in order to continue and propagate the alarm, affected to believe it true. Oates was recommended by it to the king. He was lodged in Whitehall, and encouraged by a pension of twelve hundred pounds a year to proceed in forging new informations. This encouragement did not fail to bring in others also, who hoped to profit by the delusion of the times. William Bedloe, a man, if possible, more infamous than Oates, appeared next upon the stage. He was, like the former, of very low birth, and had been noted for several cheats and thefts. This man,

437. What kind of evidence did Oates give before the council? Who was imprisoned on his evidence?

437.\* What was the fate of Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey? What effect had these informations on the nation? What advantage did Oates procure by these forgeries? Who next attempted to profit by the delusion of the times?



at his own desire, was arrested at Bristol, and conveyed to London, where he declared before the council, that Sir Edmondsbury Godfrey had been decoyed into and strangled in Somerset-house, where the queen lived. He said that a servant of lord Bellasis had offered to give him four thousand pounds if he would carry it off; and finding all his information greedily received, he confirmed and heightened Oates's plot with aggravated horrors. The witnesses, who had all along enlarged their narratives in proportion as they were eagerly received, now went a step further, implicating the lords Powis, Stafford, Arundel of Wardour, Petre, and Bellasis, and even venturing to accuse the queen. The commons, in an address to the king gave countenance to this scandalous accusation; the lords rejected it with becoming disdain." Although Charles had no affection for his meek and blameless queen, still he would not countenance this new infamy, and as he suspected it to have been prompted by Shaftesbury and Buckingham, he ordered that Oates's papers should be seized, and all communication with him prevented, unless in the presence of one of the clerks of the council. This put a stop to the accusation against the queen, as well as of fresh persons; but the lords, to prove their belief in the plot, voted impeachments of treason against the five popish peers.

438. *The Trials and Executions of the denounced.*—Oates and Bedloe had as yet shed no blood. "Coleman was the first who was brought to trial, as being most obnoxious to those who pretended to fear the introduction of popery. Bedloe swore that he had received a commission, signed by the superior of the Jesuits, appointing him papal secretary of state, and that he had consented to the king's assassination. After this unfortunate man's sentence, thus procured by these vipers, many members of both houses offered to interpose in his behalf, if he would make ample confession; but as he was, in reality, possessed of no treasonable secrets, he would not procure life by falsehood and imposture. He suffered with calmness and constancy; and, to the last, persisted in the strongest protestations of his innocence (Dec. 3, 1678). Coleman's trial was succeeded by those of Ireland, Pickering, and Grove. They protested their innocence, but were found guilty. Ireland and Grove were executed in January, and Pickering in May, 1679. These unhappy men went to execution protesting their innocence,

437.\* What was Bedloe's character? Who was next accused? Did both houses of parliament treat this accusation in the same manner?

438. Was Edward Coleman justly or unjustly condemned? Who next suffered in the same manner?



a circumstance which made no impression on the spectators; but their being Jesuits banished even pity for their sufferings. Hill, Green, and Berry, were next tried upon the evidence of one Miles Prance, for the murder of Godfrey; but though Bedloe's narrative and Prance's information were totally irreconcilable, and though their testimony was invalidated by contrary evidence, all was in vain: the prisoners were condemned and executed. They all denied their guilt at execution; and, as Berry died a protestant, this circumstance was regarded as of very considerable importance. Then Whitebread, provincial of the Jesuits, Fenwick, Gaven, Turner, and Harcourt, all of them of the same order, were brought to their trial; and Langhorne soon after. Besides Oates and Bedloe, Dugdale, a new witness, appeared against the prisoners. This man spread the alarm still further, and even asserted that two hundred thousand papists in England were ready to take up arms. The prisoners proved, by sixteen witnesses from St. Omer's, that Oates was in that seminary at the time he swore he was in London. But, as they were papists, their testimony could gain no manner of credit. All pleas availed them nothing: but the Jesuits, and Langhorne, were condemned and executed, denying with their last breath the crime for which they died. The informers had less success on the trial of Sir George Wakeman, the queen's physician, who, though they swore with their usual animosity, was acquitted. His condemnation would have involved the queen in his guilt; and it is probable the judge and jury were afraid of venturing so far. The earl of Stafford, near two years after, was the last man that fell a sacrifice to these bloody wretches; the witnesses produced against him were Oates, Dugdale, and Tuberville. The clamour and outrage of the populace against the prisoner was very great; he was found guilty; and condemned to be hanged and quartered; but the king changed the sentence into that of beheading. He was executed on Tower-hill, where even his persecutors could not forbear shedding tears at the serene fortitude which shone in every feature, motion, and accent of this aged nobleman" (Dec. 29, 1680).

439. *Intrigue against Danby: his Impeachment—The Pensionary Parliament dissolved.*—At the commencement of these trials, which had been pressed forward by lord Danby, in the

438. Who bore witness against Hill, Green, and Berry? Was their evidence confirmed or disproved? Did the prisoners acknowledge their guilt? Who next suffered death, and by whose evidence? Who was acquitted? What was the fate of the earl of Stafford?



hope of gaining popularity, lord Shaftesbury and his Whig associates prepared to attack the minister. The ruin of Danby was one of their stipulations for the despicable wages they received from Barillon the French ambassador. Danby, knowing that their partisan Montague, the king's late ambassador at Paris, had in his possession the letters instructing him to demand an annual pension of 6,000,000 livres (250,000*l.*) of the king of France, caused his papers to be siezed, but to his disappointment the letters were not among them. Montague, who had obtained a seat in the house of commons for the double purpose of attacking Danby and shielding himself against the resentment of the court, thereon presented the letters to the commons, when the house was electrified with astonishment; they proved that the king's pretended ardour for war was only manifested for the purpose of obtaining money, and that so soon as the money had been obtained, he and Danby had offered to sell the nation to a foreign power. A vote was passed that lord-treasurer Danby should be impeached for endeavouring to subvert the constitution and introduce arbitrary government (Dec. 21). The commons next insisted that he should be committed to the Tower: the lords, however, refused, and the king, fearing a dispute between the two houses, prorogued the parliament. He further soon after dissolved it, and summoned another to meet on the 6th of March, 1679. Thus ended the long or pensionary parliament of Charles II., after having sat seventeen years (see note to § 429).

440. *Charles's Second Parliament—The Habeas Corpus Act, 1679.*—The opposition, the minister, the court itself, considered all at stake in the elections for the new house of commons. They were contested with all the acrimony that faction and religious partisanship could devise. The horror of popery and the plot prevailed, and the elections were carried against the court.\* The new parliament met on the 6th of March, 1679. To calm excitement, the king obliged his brother, the duke of York, to retire to Brussels, at the same time guaranteeing to him the succession to the throne.

439. What are the particulars of the intrigue against Danby? What did it lead to? What else? When was the pensionary parliament elected? (§ 429).

440. What means were taken to conciliate the new parliament? What did the king guarantee to his brother?

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\* The practice of splitting freeholds to multiply votes is said to have originated at this election.



The first measures of the new house of commons were to exclude all members who held salaried offices, to reopen the impeachment of lord Danby, and to vote a standing army illegal. On lord Danby being committed to the Tower, the earl of Shaftesbury was placed at the head of a new ministry (April 20). Soon after this the commons ordered a bill to be brought in to exclude the duke of York from the throne (May 15). This famous bill provided, "that the crown should pass to the next heir being a protestant, as if the duke were dead, and that any attempt by himself or others to make him inherit should be high treason." On the 21st of May, the second reading was carried by a majority of 207 to 121, whereon the parliament was prorogued and soon after dissolved (July 10). In this short parliament, two important acts were however passed, the one for disbanding the army, the other "the Habeas Corpus Act, which confirms the subject in an absolute security from oppressive power. By this act it was prohibited to send any one to prisons beyond the sea: no judge, under severe penalties, was to refuse to any prisoner his writ of habeas corpus; by which the gaoler was to produce in court the body of the prisoner, whence the writ had its name, and to certify the cause of his detainer and imprisonment. If the gaol lie within twenty miles of the judge, the writ must be obeyed in three days, and so proportionably for greater distances. Every prisoner must be indicted the first term of his commitment, and brought to trial the subsequent term. And no man, after being enlarged by court, can be recommitted for the same offence."

441. *Affairs of Scotland—Murder of Archbishop Sharp—Insurrection.*—During these transactions in England, Scotland continued to be agitated by religious dissensions, which foreboded a coming storm. The oppressed were in some instances roused to resistance, and a soldier was occasionally beaten, or even slain. But a conclusive argument for fresh violence and persecution was unfortunately afforded by the assassination of archbishop Sharp (May, 1679), who had been the chief mover of all the late oppression and misrule, and who had pursued his former brethren with a malignity of which even his merciless lay associates were ashamed. Nothing however could have been more welcome to the privy

440. What were the first measures of the commons? What did these lead to? What celebrated statute was passed in this parliament? Relate the principal enactments contained in it.

441. What is said of the state of Scotland? When was archbishop Sharp assassinated? What induced such a crime?



council, who hoped to transfer the deed of a few exasperated individuals to a whole party by whom it was disowned. The full tempest of their wrath was accordingly let loose, and with the desired effect. Soldiers were dispersed over the country, to try and to condemn at pleasure. They were authorized, on meeting a person, to ask, 'Do you think the death of archbishop Sharp was murder?' The silence or hesitation of the questioned was taken as a proof of guilt, and if not dragged to prison, he was immediately dispatched. These outrages soon occasioned popular resistance. Graham of Claverhouse, a name still infamous in Scotland for deeds of blood, was sent against the covenanters, with power to extirpate or to imprison. At the head of his dragoons he at first put down all opposition, but on being defeated at Drumclog, near Glasgow, the insurrection became general in the west of Scotland. The duke of Monmouth, the king's natural son, was thereon sent to Scotland with a sufficient force to quell the insurrection. He encountered the covenanters at Bothwell-bridge, near Hamilton, and scattered his undisciplined adversaries by a single attack of horse, foot, and artillery (June 12, 1679). Four hundred covenanters were killed, and 1200 surrendered, of whom many were subsequently brought to the scaffold, but still more were banished to Barbadoes. Monmouth followed up his victory with so much moderation that the peace of Scotland was soon restored; and the persecutors reproached him with his successful humanity. But this calm was soon disturbed on his being superseded by the duke of York, who was totally unfit to pacify the presbyterians.

442. *The King's Illness—James recalled, 1679.*—Soon after the dissolution of parliament the king was attacked by a violent fever (Sept. 2), when his natural son, Monmouth, then commander-in-chief, requested his father to send a peremptory order to the duke of York not to leave Brussels. Charles, on the contrary, seeing the motives of Monmouth, whose presumption increased daily, invited his brother to come over immediately to England, on condition that he would return to Brussels on his recovery. James quickly arrived at Windsor, and induced the king to deprive Monmouth of the command of the army and to send him to Holland. Charles

441. What severities did the assassination of archbishop Sharpe occasion? Who was Graham of Claverhouse? Where were the covenanters completely routed? How did Monmouth follow up his victory?

442. Why did the king send for the duke of York? Why was Monmouth deprived of his command? Where was he sent to?



also dismissed Shaftesbury, and replaced him in the office of president of the council by the earl of Radnor (October). Every method that could be devised was now employed to excite the public mind against the catholics, and to strengthen the pretensions of Monmouth. This produced an effect contrary to the hopes of the agitators; reasonable people began to see, in a disputed succession, the terrors of a civil war: they sent addresses to the king, expressing their attachment to him and his family. Encouraged by this manifestation, the duke of York obtained the king's permission to reside at Edinburgh, instead of Brussels, in order to strengthen his interests there, and to be ready to take possession of the throne in case it became vacant.

443. *The Meal-tub Plot.*—The selfish, turbulent Shaftesbury now employed himself in exciting the popular clamour against the papists, and in stimulating accusations against them. This procedure quickly hatched a new alleged conspiracy, which was designated the Meal-tub Plot. “One Dangerfield, more infamous, if possible, than Oates and Bedloe, a wretch who had been set in the pillory, scourged, branded, and transported for felony and coining, hatched a plot, in conjunction with a midwife, whose name was Cellier, a Roman catholic of abandoned character. Dangerfield began by declaring, that there was a design on foot, to set up a new form of government, and remove the king and the royal family. He communicated this intelligence to the king and the duke of York, who supplied him with money, and countenanced his discovery. He hid some seditious papers in the lodgings of one colonel Mansel; and then brought the custom-house officers to his apartment, to search for smuggled merchandize. The papers were found, and the council having examined the affair, concluded they were forged by Dangerfield. They ordered all the places he frequented to be searched, and, in the house of Cellier, the whole scheme of the conspiracy was discovered upon paper, concealed in a meal-tub, whence the plot had its name. Dangerfield being committed to Newgate, made an ample confession of the forgery, which, though probably entirely of his own contrivance, he ascribed to the earl of Castlemain,

442. What did the agitators now do? What was the result? Why did the duke of York obtain permission to reside in Edinburgh?

443. What was the character of Dangerfield? What conspiracy did he pretend to discover? By what name is it known, and from what circumstance did it receive that name? On being committed to Newgate what did Dangerfield confess?



the countess of Powis, and the five lords in the Tower (§ 437). He said that the design was to suborn witnesses to prove a charge of sodomy and perjury upon Oates, to assassinate the earl of Shaftesbury, to accuse the dukes of Monmouth and Buckingham, the earls of Essex, Halifax, and others, of having been concerned in the conspiracy against the king and his brother. Upon this information, the earl of Castlemain and the countess of Powis were sent to the Tower." The infamy of the informer, and the clumsiness of his fabrications, made this interlude go off without bloodshed. The bill against lady Powis was ignored by the grand jury; Mrs. Cellier was acquitted at the Old Bailey; and each of the great parties, the Tories and the Whigs, represented Dangerfield as the tool of the other. The truth seems to have been that each party was ready to employ him against the other, but that he was first instigated by neither, and that he indifferently levied contributions upon the credulity and mutual antipathy of both. But it was not by plots alone that the adverse parties endeavoured to supplant each other. Tumultuous petitions on the one hand, and flattering addresses on the other, were sent up from all quarters. Wherever the country party prevailed, petitions filled with grievances and apprehensions, were sent to the king with an air of humble insolence. Wherever the church, or the country party prevailed, addresses were framed, containing expressions of the highest regard to his majesty, and the deepest *abhorrence* of those who endeavoured to disturb the public tranquillity. Thus the nation came to be distinguished into *petitioners* and *abhorrrers*.

444. *Charles's Third Parliament.*—As the elections for the new parliament, which was summoned to meet on the 19th of October, had again gone against the court, it was prorogued from time to time until the same month in the next year (1680), when it was opened by a speech from the king, in which he expressed his readiness to concur in any measure for the security of the protestant religion, not contrary to the order of succession. The first measure of the commons was to expel several members for having expressed their *abhorrence* at the importunate petitions that had been presented to the king, urging him to open the parliament; and they next resolved, that it is the undoubted right of the sub-

444. How did the elections go for the third parliament? What did the commons first do? What next engaged the attention of the house of commons? Why did Shaftesbury and others plot the ruin of the duke of York? Who expected their friend to succeed on the duke's exclusion?



jects to petition for the calling of a parliament, and that to traduce such petitions as tumultuous and seditious, is an aiding to alter the constitution. "But the chief point which the commons laboured to obtain was the Exclusion bill, which, though the former house had voted, was never passed into a law. Shaftesbury, and many considerable men of the party, had rendered themselves so obnoxious to the duke of York, that they could find safety in no measure but his ruin. Monmouth's friends hoped that the exclusion of James would make room for their own patron. The duke of York's professed bigotry to the catholic superstition influenced numbers: and his tyrannies, which were practised without control, while he continued in Scotland, rendered his name odious to thousands. In a week, therefore, after the commencement of the session, a motion was made for bringing in a bill for excluding him from the succession to the throne, and a committee was appointed for that purpose." It was brought in on the 2nd of November, and passed on the 11th, and was carried to the lords on the 15th, by lord Russell. In the lords, the debates were carried on with great violence on both sides. The king was present during the whole debate, and had the pleasure of seeing the bill thrown out by a majority of 63 to 30. The framers of the Exclusion bill were so exasperated at its rejection in the lords, that they kept the house of commons in a continual state of agitation, exciting the fears and passions of the members; and the king having sent a message demanding a supply, they voted that until a bill be passed for excluding the duke of York, they could not give any supply without danger to his majesty and to the protestant religion; they also resolved, that whoever lent money to the king upon any branch of the revenue or bought any anticipation bills, should be judged a hinderer to the sitting of parliament, and be responsible for the same in parliament. These and other intemperate resolutions so irritated the king, that he prorogued the parliament on the 10th of January, and dissolved it by proclamation on the 18th, calling another to meet, not at Westminster, but at Oxford, on the 21st of March, 1681.

445. *The fourth Parliament—The Suborner Fitzharris.*—Charles and the commons were now come to what is understood by a crisis. The elections for the new parliament had also gone against the court. The interval, before the meeting at Oxford, was employed by both parties in preparations for the

444. What had rendered the duke of York's name odious? Did the bill pass for excluding him from the succession? What did its promoters then do? How did Charles then resent it?



approaching contest. In order to render himself more independent of the commons, the king concluded a secret treaty with Louis XIV., by which that monarch stipulated to furnish him with 2,000,000 livres for the current year, and 500,000 crowns for the two following years, on condition that Charles would not enter into any engagement incompatible with the interest of France. During the interval, each party reviled and ridiculed each other in pamphlets and libels; and this practice, at last, was attended with an incident that deserves notice. One Fitzharris, an Irish papist, dependent on the duchess of Portsmouth, one of the king's mistresses, used to supply her with these occasional publications. But he was resolved to add to their number by his own endeavours; and employed one Everard, a Scotchman, to write a libel against the king and the duke of York. The Scot was actually a spy for the opposite party; and supposing this a trick to entrap him, he discovered the whole to Sir William Waller, an eminent justice of peace; and to convince him of the truth of his information, posted him, and two other persons, privately, where they heard the whole conference between Fitzharris and himself. The libel composed between them was replete with the utmost rancour and scurrility. Waller carried the intelligence to the king, and obtained a warrant for committing Fitzharris, who happened at that very time to have a copy of the libel in his pocket. Seeing himself in the hands of a party from which he expected no mercy, he resolved to side with them, and throw the odium of the libel on the court, who, he said, were willing to draw out a libel which should be imputed to the exclusioners, and thus render them hateful to the people. He enhanced his services with the country party by a new popish plot, still more tremendous than any of the foregoing. He brought in the duke of York as a principal accomplice in the plot, and as a contriver in the murder of Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey. There being abundant proof of Fitzharris's guilt, he was first sent to Newgate, and afterwards to the Tower, to prevent being tampered with, until indicted in the Court of King's Bench for high treason (March 11). Three days after the king went to Oxford, escorted by a troop of horse guards. The chiefs of the popular party followed, accompanied by armed men wearing around their hats a ribbon with the inscription 'no popery, no slavery!' On opening the session on the 21st of March, the king again promised

445. What arrangement did Charles make to obtain money? Was that procedure creditable to him? What episode occurred between the election and the meeting of the Oxford parliament? On whom was Fitzharris dependent? What plan did he form? What part did Everard act?



his assent to any expedient to allay their fears of a popish successor, without altering the succession. This produced no effect. The Exclusion bill was again introduced on the 24th. "The commons also adopted the cause of Fitzharris. They voted that he should be impeached by themselves to secure him from the ordinary forms of justice; the lords rejected the impeachment; the commons asserted their right; a commotion was likely to ensue; and the king, to break off the contest, went to the house, and dissolved the parliament, with a fixed resolution never to call another" (March 28, 1681).

446. *Charles despotic*, 1681.—"The dissolution was a blow that the parliament had never expected; and nothing but the necessity of the times could have justified the king's manner of proceeding. From that moment, which ended the parliamentary commotions, Charles seemed to rule with despotic power; and he was resolved to leave the succession to his brother, but clogged with all the faults and misfortunes of his own administration. His temper, which had always been easy and merciful, now became arbitrary, and even cruel; he entertained spies and informers round the throne, and imprisoned all such as he thought most daring in their designs. To humble the presbyterians, he soon divested them of their employments and their places, and gave their offices to such as held with the court, and approved the doctrine of non-resistance. The episcopal clergy began to testify their zeal and their principles, by their writings and their sermons; but though among these, the partisans of the king were the most numerous, those of the opposite faction were the most enterprising. The king openly espoused the cause of the former; and thus placing himself at the head of a faction, he deprived the citizens of London, who had long headed the popular party, of their charter. It was not till after an abject submission that he restored it to them, having previously subjected the election of their magistrates to his immediate authority. Terrors were not wanting to confirm his new species of monarchy. Fitzharris was brought to a trial before a jury, and condemned and executed (April 30). The whole gang of spies, witnesses, informers, and suborners, which had

445. Who espoused the cause of Fitzharris? What gave rise to a contest between the house of commons and the house of lords? How did the king put an end to the contention between the lords and the commons?

446. What effect had the dissolution of parliament on the conduct and temper of Charles? Whom did Charles now resolve to humble? Of what did he divest them? Why did he deprive the citizens of London of their charter? On what condition was it restored to them? What was the fate of Fitzharris?—and the whole gang of spies?



long been encouraged and supported by the leading patriots, finding now that the king was entirely master, turned short upon their ancient drivers, and offered their evidence against those who had first put them in motion. The king's ministers, with a horrid satisfaction, gave them countenance and encouragement; so that soon the same cruelties, and the same injustice, were practised against presbyterian schemes, which had been employed against catholic treasons. One Stephen College, a London joiner, who had become so noted for his zeal against popery, that he went by the name of the protestant joiner, was the first person that fell under the displeasure of the ministry. He had attended the city members to Oxford, when the last parliament met there, armed with sword and pistol, and he had sometimes spoken irreverently of the king, for which he was now arraigned; but the grand jury of London rejected the bill. A jury at Oxford, after half an hour's deliberation, brought him in guilty, and the spectators testified their inhuman pleasure with a shout of applause. He bore his fate with unshaken fortitude; and at the place of execution denied the crime for which he had been condemned (August)." On the same day Titus Oates was turned out of his lodgings and discarded. An indictment of high treason was soon after preferred against lord Shaftesbury, at the Old Bailey, but the grand jury being packed by the Whig sheriffs, the bill was ignored. It was from this time that juries began to restrain the crown in political prosecutions. "Resistance to the crown, however, could not now be safe, and all prudent men saw no other expedient but peaceably submitting to the present grievances. But there was a party in England that still cherished their former ideas of freedom, and were resolved to hazard every danger in its defence."

447. *Monmouth arrested—The Rye-house Plot, 1683.*—The conduct of the duke of Monmouth now excited much attention; he had solicited a reconciliation with his father, but the reproaches of lords Shaftesbury and Russell made him avoid it, and he now sought popularity by travelling through the country in a princely style, with a hundred attendants, encouraging the popular acclamations and cries of 'A Monmouth, a Monmouth, and no York.' These proceedings led to his being arrested; when he was obliged to

446. Who fell first under the displeasure of the king's ministers? Relate his fate. Why did all prudent men peaceably submit to their present grievances?

447. Who dissuaded Monmouth from a reconciliation with his father? Why was he taken into custody?



give bail, himself in 2000*l.* and five sureties of 2000*l.* each. Shaftesbury, observing the absolute ascendancy of the court party, now became desperate: he endeavoured to persuade his partisans to rise in arms, and to excite the citizens to open rebellion. "But this scheme, like others, was disappointed. The caution of lord Russell, who induced the duke of Monmouth to put off the enterprise, saved the kingdom from the horrors of a civil war; while Shaftesbury, after a long struggle between fear and rage, abandoned all hopes of success, and fled out of the kingdom to Amsterdam, where he ended his turbulent life soon after, without being pitied by his friends, or feared by his enemies (Jan., 1683). The loss of Shaftesbury, though it retarded the views of the conspirators, did not suppress them. A council of six was constituted, consisting of Monmouth, Russell, Essex, Howard, Algernon Sydney, and John Hampden, grandson to the great man of that name. These, together with the duke of Argyle, were thereafter the leaders of this conspiracy. But there was also a set of subordinate conspirators, who frequently met together, and carried on projects quite unknown to Monmouth and his council. Among these men was colonel Rumsey, an old republican officer, together with lieutenant-colonel Walcot, of the same stamp; Goodenough, under-sheriff of London, a zealous and noted party-man; Ferguson, an independent minister; and several attornies, merchants, and tradesmen of London. But colonel Rumsey and Ferguson were the only persons that had access to the great leaders of the conspiracy. These men in their meetings embraced the most desperate resolutions. They proposed to assassinate the king in his way to Newmarket. Rumbal, one of the party, possessed a farm upon that road, called the Rye-house, and from thence the conspiracy was denominated the Rye-house Plot. They deliberated upon a scheme of stopping the king's coach, by overturning a cart on the highway at this place, and shooting him through the hedges. The house in which the king lived at Newmarket took fire accidentally, and he was obliged to leave Newmarket eight days sooner than was expected, to which circumstance his safety was ascribed. Among the conspirators was one Keiling, who,

447. Whom did the duke of Monmouth afterwards engage in his cause? Who saved the kingdom from the horrors of a civil war? Why did Shaftesbury leave the kingdom? Where, and in what manner, did he end his turbulent life? Who were the leaders of the next conspiracy? Who acted a subordinate part in this combination? How is this plot called in history, and why had it this name? Relate the particulars of this nefarious combination.



finding himself in danger of a prosecution for arresting the lord-mayor of London, resolved to earn his pardon by discovering this plot to the ministry. Colonel Rumsey, and West, a lawyer, no sooner understood that this man had informed against them, than they agreed to save their lives by turning king's evidence, and they surrendered themselves accordingly. The duke of Monmouth, lord Grey, and two others escaped; Russell was sent to the Tower; Howard was taken concealed in a chimney; Essex, Sydney, and Hampden were soon after arrested, and had the mortification to find lord Howard an evidence against them."

448. *Trial and Execution of Russell, Sydney, and others.*—Three of the minor conspirators, named Hone, Walcot, and Rouse, were first tried, and convicted upon the evidence of Rumsey, West, and Sheppard. "They died penitent, acknowledging the justice of the sentence by which they were executed. A much greater sacrifice was shortly after to follow. This was the lord Russell, son of the earl of Bedford, a nobleman of numberless good qualities, and led into this conspiracy from a conviction of the duke of York's intentions to restore popery. He was liberal, popular, humane, and brave. All his virtues were so many crimes in the present suspicious disposition of the court. The chief evidence against him was lord Howard, a man of very bad character, one of the conspirators, who was now contented to take life upon such terms, and to accept of infamous safety. This witness swore that Russell was engaged in the design of an insurrection; but he acquitted him, as did also Rumsey and West, of being privy to the assassination. The jury, who were zealous royalists, after a short deliberation, brought the prisoner in guilty, and he was condemned to suffer beheading. The scaffold for his execution was erected in Lincoln's-inn-fields; he laid his head on the block without the least change of countenance, and at two strokes it was severed from his body (July 21, 1683). Algernon Sydney, son to the earl of Leicester, was next brought to his trial. He had been formerly engaged in the parliamentary army against the late king, and was even named on the high court of justice that tried him, but had not taken his seat among the judges. He had ever opposed Cromwell's usurpation, and went into voluntary banishment on the Restoration. His affairs, however, requiring his return, he applied to the king for a pardon, and obtained his request. But all his hopes, and all his reason-

447. How many of the conspirators were arrested?

448. Repeat the names of those who suffered on account of the Rye-house plot.



ings, were formed upon republican principles. For his adored republic he had written and fought, and went into banishment, and ventured to return. It may easily be conceived how obnoxious a man of such principles was to a court that now was not even content with limitations to its power. They went so far as to take illegal methods to procure his condemnation. The only witness that deposed against Sydney was lord Howard, and the law required two. In order, therefore, to make out a second witness, they had recourse to a very extraordinary expedient. In ransacking his closet, some discourses on government were found in his own handwriting, containing principles favourable to liberty, and in themselves no way subversive of a limited government. By overstraining some of these they were construed into treason. It was in vain he alleged that papers were no evidence; that it could not be proved they were written by him; that if proved, the papers themselves contained nothing criminal. His defence was overruled; the violent and inhuman Jefferies, who was now chief-justice, easily prevailed on a partial jury to bring him in guilty, and his execution followed," at which he declared his satisfaction at dying for *the good old cause* in which he had been engaged from his youth (Dec. 21). "Hampden was tried soon after; and as there was nothing to affect his life, he was fined forty thousand pounds. Holloway, a merchant of Bristol, who had fled to the West Indies, was brought over, condemned, and executed. Sir Thomas Armstrong also, who had fled to Holland, was brought over and shared the same fate. Lord Essex, who had been imprisoned in the Tower, was found in an apartment with his throat cut; but whether he was guilty of suicide, or whether the bigotry of the times might not have induced some assassin to commit the crime, cannot now be known. This was the last blood shed for an imputation of plots or conspiracies, which continued during the greatest part of this reign. One can scarce contemplate the transactions of this reign without horror. Such a picture of factious guilt on each side, a court at once immersed in sensuality and blood, a people armed against each other with the most deadly animosity, and no single party to be found with sense enough to stem the general torrent of rancour and factious suspicion."

449. *Absolutism triumphant—Death of Charles II.*—The triumph of the Tories was now complete: the people appeared to rejoice that the hostilities of party spirit ceased to agitate

448. What was the fate of the earl of Essex?

449. Absolutism being triumphant, in what state did the nation appear?



and torment them; loyal addresses were sent from all parts, and Charles at length found himself invested with absolute power, which he took care to hold, by avoiding to call a parliament. To convince the nation that he wished to maintain the protestant religion, he insisted that the princess Anne, second daughter of the duke of York, the presumptive heir, should be brought up in that faith, as well as her sister Mary, who was married to the prince of Orange. To give still greater security, Anne was given in marriage to the prince George, brother of the king of Denmark. To render the crown more independent of the nation, Charles now ordered a revision of the charters of privileges belonging to different cities and boroughs, so that the influence at elections for members of parliament might be possessed by persons attached to the court, and the numbers of electors greatly reduced. This was executed with little difficulty, through the perseverance of judge Jeffreys, who was amply rewarded for his pains. The lords Danby, Powis, Arundel, and Belasis, who had been confined during five years in the Tower, were now liberated, as no more danger was to be apprehended from them (February, 1664). From this time Charles left the administration of government to the duke of York without any ministerial character. This led to various intrigues to supplant him, by promoting a reconciliation between the king and the duke of Monmouth, in the midst of which the king was seized with a sudden illness, which resembled an apoplexy; and though he was recovered by bleeding, yet he languished only for a few days, and then expired on the 6th of February, 1685, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign, dated from the Restoration, and the thirty-seventh from the death of his father, as in all public acts. It is deserving of notice that his body was conveyed privately from the painted Chamber at Whitehall, and buried in Henry VIIth's Chapel in Westminster Abbey. During his illness the archbishop of Canterbury, with the bishops of London and of Bath and Wells attended him, to whom he discovered a total indifference. Catholic priests were brought to his bed-side, and from their hands he received the rites of their communion. Charles did not leave any legitimate children: his illegitimate offspring were the duke of Monmouth, the countess of Yarmouth, the duke of Southampton, the duke of Grafton, the duke of Northumberland, the countess

449. How did Charles maintain his power? How did he try to show that he desired to maintain the protestant religion? What is said of Charles's last illness? In what belief did he appear to die? What children did he leave?



of Lichfield, the duke of St. Albans, the duke of Richmond, and the countess of Derwentwater.

450. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). Charles II. was the most worthless sovereign that had reigned in England. It would be difficult to particularise a single trait in his character that entitled him to the respect or tolerance of the people. Most of the bad passions were latent in him. That they were not more frequently exhibited is due to his natural indolence of temperament. Justice could not extort from him the trouble to take a guilty life, or generosity the trouble to save an innocent one:—nothing could do it but exclusive, sensual, sordid self. His total want of self-respect was shown in his acceptance of a secret pension from Louis XIV., in his frequent bargainings for its increase, and his untruthfulness in at the same time pretending to be the friend of Holland, of Spain, and of Austria. His wars with the Dutch were entered into as a pretext to obtain grants of money from parliament that a part of it might be appropriated by himself, and with a view to plunder, his share of prize-money in the first war having been estimated at £340,000, while he received about £300,000 in consideration of his agreeing to conclude the second peace. He sacrificed lord Strafford and others, rather than provoke opposition to the course of his government, or the disturbance of his personal ease, the more criminally that he had previously extracted from his minister Danby that the accusations of Titus Oates were a scandalous imposture, encouraged for a political diversion in favour of the court; and he shed the blood of lord Russell and Algernon Sydney from an exaggerated sentiment of self-preservation, when there was a certainty that they were in no way accomplices in his projected assassination. Notwithstanding the pollution of his private life and the untruthfulness of his public administration, Charles II. is lauded by Romanist writers for his religious constancy and dying testimony to the truth of their faith; while the English church continues to offer an annual thanksgiving for the ‘unspeakable mercies’ conferred by his restoration and the re-establishment of ‘the true religion and worship,’ but doubtless rather for having indulged the hierarchy in temporal wealth and spiritual domination, even to depriving non-conforming protestants of many religious and civil rights, a body which now greatly outnumbers the episcopalians in England and Scotland.

(2). As in the times of Charles I. and the commonwealth, so in that of Charles II., no regard was paid to the demand of the people for the security and extension of religious and civil liberty, either by the king or the parliaments: consequently toleration, which is the essence of religious liberty, was denied; and legislation by frequently-renewed representatives chosen by the whole people, which is the root of civil liberty, was evaded with the concurrence of the parliaments, there being no trace of any demand having been made or bill introduced for amending the constitution of parliament, which like the feudal tenures had become worn out.

(3). By the unconditional restoration of Charles II., and by the abolition of all the statutes enacted by the long-parliament and during the commonwealth, the ancient feudal monarchy became fully re-established. But within a few months, its foundation was undermined by the unconditional abolition of the feudal tenures, which had been its principal source of revenue. By that single act (12 C. 2, c. 24) a more thorough revolution was effected in the administration of government and in the tenure of land in England, than had occurred since the Norman Con-



quest. It gave to the feudatories of the State a complete discharge, as the lawyers are in the habit of very correctly wording it, from the *oppressive* fruits and incidents of their tenure.\* It confirmed to them their rights, discharged from the correlative obligations; and thus created the moral and legal anomaly of rights without obligations—an anomaly which cannot exist without a legal and logical absurdity, and a moral fraud.† As eleven monthly assessments, on the same principle as those levied during the civil war and the commonwealth in lieu of the incidents of military service and purveyance, were granted immediately after the Restoration, *whilst his majesty's revenue stood unsettled, and his just rights and prerogatives in point of tenures, and the use of the court of wards, are forborne* (see 12 C. 2, c. 21), it is certain that the unconditional abolition of the feudal tenures were not then intended. On the contrary, as the ordinary revenue was fixed at £1,200,000, the precise amount of twelve ordinary monthly assessments, there is the presumption that the ordinary feudal tenures were intended to be commuted into a rent-charge, so as to contribute the principal part of that amount. But when the convention-commons, then almost exclusively landholders, found that the king was indifferent as to the sources from which his revenue was derived, they availed themselves of the opportunity to abolish the *hereditary* conditions upon which estates were held, and to grant in lieu thereof an *hereditary excise* on the commodities, consumed principally by those whose existence was maintained by continuous toil. This is the most disgraceful proceeding in the whole range of fiscal history. In every continental nation, an equivalent land-tax is substituted for the feudal tenures. Their unconditional abolition in 1660 was precisely the same as if a statute was now passed to abolish the payment of rent by tenants to landlords. When such was the case, it is surely as imperative a duty to obtain a proper adjustment of the constitutional rights of the State upon the land, as it was to obtain the repeal of the corn-laws, which were first enacted in this reign to maintain 'a very great scarcity' at all times, in order to raise the price of agricultural produce and to increase the rent of land.‡ The welfare of his people is a consideration which never entered into the mind of Charles II., and it is equally certain that the liberties of the commonalty were totally disregarded by the landocracy.

(4). It was in 1679, that the cant designations of Tory and Whig were first heard in their applications to English factions, becoming thereafter as familiar in use as they have since continued. The cardinal maxim of toryism then was, that the king ought to exercise all his prerogatives without the interference, or unsolicited advice even of parliament, much less of the people. The whigs, on the contrary, maintained that the administration or government ought to be influenced by the wishes of the people. "The tories were so denominated from the Irish banditti so called, whose usual manner of bidding people deliver, was by the Irish word *toree*, or give me. The whigs were denominated from a cant name given to the sour Scotch conventiclers (whig being milk turned sour)."—GOLDSMITH.

(5). It was in this reign that the nucleus of a standing army was formed, the number of troops kept up varying from four to eight thousand men. But even that small body excited the suspicion and jealousy of the public; and, by a vote of the house of commons in 1679, it was declared contrary to law. The annual expense of Charles II. for guards and garrisons amounted to about £200,000.

\* See § 174.

† "The Constitutional Right to a Revision of the Land-tax," London, 1842.

‡ Smith's "Wealth of Nations." book iv. c. 5



## JAMES II.

Began to reign February 6th, 1685;—deposed January 22nd, 1688.

451. *Accession and Coronation of James II.*—The duke of York succeeded to the throne on the day of his brother's death, by the title of James II. He was bred a papist by his mother, and was strongly bigoted to his principles. On the seventh day after his accession, he went openly to mass at St. James's chapel, with all the ensigns of his dignity; and soon after sent one Caryl as his agent to Rome, to make submissions to the Pope, and to pave the way for the re-admission of England into the bosom of the catholic church. These proceedings were followed by the appointment of a secret committee to watch over the interests of the papists, and the publication of a proclamation, ordering the discharge of all persons who were confined for not having taken the oaths of allegiance and supremacy. By that measure several thousand papists and 1200 quakers were liberated. This excited discontent among the zealous protestants; but as no violent opposition was shown, the king thought himself in no danger. He next determined to call a parliament to meet on the 19th of May; and being in want of money, he ordered by proclamation the usual duties to be levied on merchandise until it assembled. About the same time he published two papers in the handwriting of the late king, to manifest he died a papist. This was followed by the coronation of himself and queen in Westminster Abbey, according to the protestant rites, on the 23rd of April, 1685.

452. *Oates punished—The Parliament—Argyle and Monmouth Rebels.*—While the elections were proceeding in favour of the court, with unusual apathy on the part of the people, Titus Oates was tried and convicted in the court of King's Bench, for having sworn falsely in his evidence on the catholic plot. He was sentenced to pay a fine of 2000 marks, to be twice publicly whipped from Aldgate to Newgate and from Newgate to Tyburn, and to stand in the pillory five times a year during his life (May 8). On the 22nd of May, James opened the parliament, which, as he said, contained 'not more than forty names that he could have wished

451. In what year did James, duke of York, ascend the throne? In what religious opinions was he instructed by his mother? Why did he send an agent to Rome? What were his next measures?

452. Who was Titus Oates? What was his sentence? What did James say of the parliament?



not there.' He demanded a continuation of the revenue granted to his brother, and told them, that if they used him well, he should be glad to meet them very often; and concluded by informing them, that he had received information that very morning of the landing of the earl of Argyle in the western Highlands with a rebel band from Holland, and by expressing the hope that the commons would grant him an immediate supply to enable him to protect the nation. The commons having taken into consideration the king's speech, unanimously voted him a revenue of 1,200,000*l.* for life; and pledged their lives and fortunes in support of the king against the rebel and traitor Argyle. Their loyalty was soon further tested by news arriving that the duke of Monmouth had also landed with his followers at Lyme, in Dorsetshire; a price was immediately set upon his head, and the commons voted a supply of 400,000*l.* On the 2nd of July, James adjourned the session until the 9th of November, and requested the members to repair to their own homes, and to watch over the public tranquillity.

453. *Argyle taken and executed—Monmouth captured.*—“Argyle, on landing in Scotland, published two manifestoes, charging popery and fratricide upon James, and setting forth his own wrongs. He next put himself at the head of 2500 men, and strove to influence the people in his cause. A formidable body of the king's forces however coming against him, his army fell away; and he himself, after being wounded in attempting to escape, was taken prisoner by a peasant, who found him standing up to his neck in a pool of water (June 17). He was from thence carried to Edinburgh, where, after enduring many indignities with a gallant spirit, he was publicly executed (June 30). Meanwhile Monmouth, who had landed in Dorsetshire on the 15th, with scarce a hundred followers, was so popularly received, and so great was the hatred of the people both for the person and religion of James, that in four days he was joined by a body of above 2000 men. With these he advanced to Taunton (June 18), where his numbers increased to 6000 men; and he was obliged every day, for want of arms, to dismiss numbers who crowded to his standard.” At Taunton he caused himself to be proclaimed king, by the style and title of James II., and issued a proclamation setting a price upon the head of James, duke of York, as a

452. What revenue did James demand? What was the amount granted to him? Where did Argyle land? Where Monmouth?

453. Who seconded Monmouth's views in Scotland? What was the fate of Argyle? Why did the people throng to Monmouth on his landing? Where was he proclaimed king?



traitor and usurper. This procedure was a fatal proof of his weakness and vanity. The republicans were disgusted, the friends of the protestant succession in the princess of Orange were alarmed, and the royalists treated it with derision. Imbued with the pedantry, without the genius for war, Monmouth spent unnecessarily several days at Taunton, from whence he went to "Bridgewater, Wells, and Frome, and was proclaimed in all those places; but he lost the hour of action in receiving and claiming these empty honours. Six regiments of British troops were recalled from Holland; and a body of regulars, to the number of 3000 men, were sent, under the command of the earl of Feversham and lord Churchill, to check the progress of the rebels. They took post at Sedgemoor, a village in the neighbourhood of Bridgewater, and were joined by the militia of the country in considerable numbers. It was there that Monmouth resolved, by a desperate effort, to lose his life or gain the kingdom. The negligent disposition made by Feversham invited him to the attack; and his faithful followers showed what courage and principle could do against discipline and numbers. They drove the royal infantry from their ground, and were upon the point of gaining the victory, when the misconduct of Monmouth, and the cowardice of lord Gray, who commanded the horse, brought all to ruin. This nobleman fled at the first onset, and the rebels being charged in flank by the victorious army, gave way, after a three hours' contest. About three hundred were killed in the engagement, and a thousand in the pursuit; and thus ended an enterprise rashly begun, and more feebly conducted (July 6). Monmouth fled from the field of battle above twenty miles, till his horse sunk under him. He then alighted, and changing clothes with a shepherd, fled on foot in the direction of the New Forest, attended by a German count, who had accompanied him from Holland. Being quite exhausted with hunger and fatigue, they both lay down in a field, and covered themselves with fern. The shepherd being found in Monmouth's clothes by the pursuers, increased the diligence of the search; and, by the means of blood-hounds, he was detected in this miserable situation, with raw peas in his pocket, which he had gathered in the fields to sustain life (July 8). After resting two days at Ringwood, he was conveyed by slow stages through Rumsey,

453. What did Monmouth lose whilst receiving these empty honours? What effort did the king make to check the progress of the rebels? Where did the armies come to an engagement? By whose misconduct did Monmouth lose the victory? By what means did he attempt to elude his pursuers? Were they successful?



Winchester, Farnham, and Guildford to London, where he arrived on the 13th of July, 1685.

454. *Monmouth executed—Military and Judicial Executions.*—"Monmouth now wrote the most submissive letters to the king; and that monarch, willing to feast his eyes with the miseries of a fallen enemy, gave him an audience. At this interview the duke fell upon his knees, and begged his life in the most abject terms. He even signed a paper offered him by the king, declaring his own illegitimacy; and then the stern tyrant assured him, that his crime was of such a nature as could not be pardoned. The duke perceiving that he had nothing to hope from the clemency of his uncle, recovered his spirits, rose up, and retired with an air of disdain. The unhappy culprit was then conveyed to the Tower by lord Dartmouth. On their way he implored that nobleman to intercede for his life, and received for answer, that he had placed himself out of the pale of mercy by taking the title of king. He could not yet abandon all hope of mercy, and wrote letters to the two queens, and several catholic lords, to plead for him. His prayers and his hopes were unavailing. His attainder dispensed with any form of trial, and he received orders to prepare for death. On the morning of the 15th he was brought to die on Tower-hill, and was followed to the scaffold with great compassion from the populace. He warned the executioner not to fall into the same error which he had committed in beheading Russell, where it had been necessary to redouble the blow. But this only increased the severity of the punishment: the man was seized with an universal trepidation, and he struck a feeble blow, upon which the duke raised his head from the block, as if to reproach him; he gently laid down his head a second time, and the executioner struck him again and again to no purpose. He at last threw the axe down, but the sheriff compelled him to resume the attempt, and, at two blows more, the head was severed from the body. Such was the end of James, duke of Monmouth, the darling of the English people. He was brave, sincere, and good-natured, open to flattery, and by that seduced into an enterprise which exceeded his capacity. It would have been well for the insurgents, and fortunate for the king, if the blood that was now shed had been thought a sufficient expiation for the late offence. The victorious army behaved with the most savage cruelty to the prisoners taken

454. Why did the king give Monmouth an audience? Did Monmouth fulfil the king's expectation? Relate his conduct and sufferings at the place of execution. In what year and at what age was Monmouth beheaded?



after the battle. Feversham, immediately after the victory, hanged up above twenty prisoners; and Colonel Kirke nineteen at Bridgewater. These military severities of the commanders were still inferior to the legal slaughters committed by judge Jefferies, who was sent down to try the delinquents. The natural brutality of this man's temper was inflamed by continual intoxication. He told the prisoners, that if they would save him the trouble of trying them they might expect some favour, otherwise he would execute the law upon them with the utmost severity. Many poor wretches were thus allured into a confession, and found that it only hastened their destruction. No less than eighty were executed at Dorchester; and, on the whole, at Exeter, Taunton, and Wells, 251 are computed to have fallen by the hands of justice."

455. *Arbitrary Measures—Parliament dissolved.*—James having thus triumphed over his enemies, resolved to attempt three objects, which he thought would render his seat on the throne more secure. The establishment of a standing army, the employment of popish officers, and a modification of the *habeas corpus act*. These measures created considerable excitement, which was greatly increased by the revocation at this time of the edict of Nantes by Louis XIV. (October 14). Thousands of French protestants having fled to England, to escape persecution, the people urged their representatives to unite in defence of their religion and their liberties. When parliament re-assembled on the 9th of November, James congratulated them on the restoration of tranquillity, intimated that he had increased the regular army, and called upon the commons to vote supplies for that purpose. 'There are,' added he, 'some of the officers whose religious opinions might disqualify them according to the present law (the Test act); but those men having served me in danger, I will not now discharge them; and I hope this will not cause any misunderstanding between us.' The commons voted the 700,000*l.* demanded; but accompanied the vote with an address, requesting the king to discharge his popish officers, and not to dispense with the law without the authority of parliament. James replied to them, that he was surprised at the address,

454. How did Feversham treat the prisoners taken at Sedgemore? Who surpassed in cruelty the barbarity of the military commanders? What inflamed the natural brutality of this judge's temper?

455. What were the three objects resolved upon by James? How were they received? What increased the excitement? How did James address the parliament? What did the commons vote? What answer did the king send?



and warned them against the danger of dissension. On the receipt of this answer, the member for Derby, John Coke, exclaimed, 'I hope we are Englishmen, and not to be frightened from our duty by a few hard words.' For this expression Coke was committed to the Tower. The king, however, soon perceived that a strong opposition to his measures would be offered in both houses; he accordingly resolved to prevent it, and for that purpose, he suddenly prorogued the parliament (November 20), and did not allow it to meet again; but delayed its dissolution until the 2nd of July, 1687.

456. *Dissension in the Cabinet. Popery encouraged—Dispensations.*—The dismissal of parliament did not relieve James from his difficulties. Two hostile parties arose in his cabinet under lords Rochester and Sunderland. The former and his friends conjured the monarch not to alienate the affections of his people, by measures repugnant to their feelings, and contrary to the constitution. The other and his party warmly encouraged the king not to lose the present opportunity to strengthen his authority, and to rescue the papists from oppression, and urged that if he listened to the contrary policy, he would become dependent upon parliament. As this counsel accorded with the king's purpose, lord Sunderland was made president of the council of ministers (December 4). The encouragement now openly given to the papists, induced several episcopal clergymen and members of different colleges to become converts; the more especially as dispensations were given to them, enabling them to enjoy the benefits of their respective places without taking the oaths. The popular feeling thereby created was increased by the unhappy condition of many of the French refugees. Prayers were read in the churches for their relief, and a book was published in French describing the inhumanity of Louis and the wrongs of the sufferers.\* James ordered it to be burned by the common hangman, and this was considered by the people as a sign that he approved of the persecution.

457. *Ecclesiastical Commission—Bishop Compton suspended—Dispensing Power resisted.*—"Among those who distinguished themselves at this time against popery was one Dr. Sharpe, a clergyman of London, who declaimed with just severity

455. Why was Coke sent to the Tower? What was the consequence?

456. How did Rochester and Sunderland advise the king? Whose advice was taken? What followed?

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\* "Les Plaintes des Protestants cruellement opprimés dans le Royaume de France."



against those who had changed their religion by such arguments as the popish missionaries were able to produce. This being supposed to reflect upon the king, gave great offence at court; and positive orders were given to Compton, bishop of London, to suspend Sharpe till his majesty's pleasure should be further known. The bishop refused to comply; and the king resolved to punish the bishop himself for disobedience. For this purpose an ecclesiastical commission was issued out, by which seven commissioners\* were invested with a full and unlimited authority over the whole church of England. Before this tribunal bishop Compton was summoned; and not only he, but Sharpe, the preacher, were suspended (Sept. 1686). James soon after publicly sent the earl of Castlemain ambassador extraordinary to Rome, in order to express his obedience to the Pope, and to reconcile his kingdoms to the catholic communion. Never was there so much contempt thrown upon an embassy that was so boldly undertaken. The court of Rome expected but little success from measures so blindly conducted. They were sensible that the king was openly striking at those laws and opinions which it was his business to undermine in silence and security. The Jesuits were now permitted to erect colleges in different parts of the kingdom; they exercised the catholic worship in the most public manner; and four catholic bishops, consecrated in the king's chapel, were sent through the kingdom to exercise their episcopal functions, under the title of apostolic vicars. The king now recommended Father Francis, a Benedictine monk, to the university of Cambridge, for the degree of master of arts. But his religion was a stumbling-block which the university could not get over; and they presented a petition, beseeching the king to recall his mandate. Their petition was disregarded, their deputies denied a hearing; the vice-chancellor himself was summoned to appear before the high-commissioned court, and deprived of his office; yet the university persisted, and father Francis was refused (Feb. 9,

457. Why did James II. order the bishop of London to suspend Dr. Sharpe? Did bishop Compton comply with the king's order? How did James punish both? What was his next step? Whom did he send ambassador to Rome, and for what purpose? How was the embassy received? What order of priests was permitted to erect colleges in different parts of the kingdom? In what did the university of Cambridge show their resolution and sense of duty?

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\* The seven commissioners were—archbishop Sancroft, the lord-chancellor Jeffries, bishops Crew and Sprat, lords Rochester and Sunderland, and the chief-justice Herbert.



1687). A vacancy having soon after occurred in the place of president of Magdalen college, Oxford, one of the richest foundations in Europe, the king sent a mandate in favour of one Farmer, a new convert of popery, and a man of bad character in other respects (April 11). The fellows of the college made very submissive applications to the king for recalling his mandate; they refused admitting the candidate, and James finding them resolute in the defence of their privileges, ejected them all except two."

458. *Declaration of Indulgence—Reception of the Papal Nuncio.*

—In April, 1687, the king issued a declaration, allowing liberty of conscience to all his subjects, suspending and dispensing with the penal and test laws, and even with the oaths of allegiance and supremacy on admission into offices civil and military. Had it been intended to honestly carry out this measure, it would have been the greatest advance ever made in the establishment of religious liberty. But James had no such intention; it was wholly contrived to enable him to fill all offices of honour and trust with papists, as a preparatory measure to the re-establishment of popery, when no dissent from the church of Rome might have been permitted. Although a Nuncio from the Pope had been for some time in London, he had not been publicly received. James now fixed a day for his reception, and ordered the duke of Somerset, first lord of the bed-chamber, to introduce him. The duke requested to be excused from a service which might bring him within the statute of treason. 'Do you not know,' said James, 'that I am above the law;' meaning, probably, that he could indemnify him by a royal pardon. 'Your majesty may be,' replied the duke, 'but I am not.' Somerset lost his place at court and his regiment; and the duke of Grafton, one of the natural sons of the late king, being less scrupulous, conducted the nuncio to Windsor palace, and introduced him to the king and queen. The nuncio was next entertained at the lord mayor's feast at Guildhall, where were present the king, the prince of Denmark, the foreign ambassadors, and the great officers of state (Oct. 29). James continued his unpopular measures, not being controlled by parliament, which he had determined not to call until he could command a majority in both houses.

457. Did Magdalen college admit the president recommended by the king?

458. What were dispensed by the indulgence? Was it a proper measure? Why was it objected to? Why did Somerset refuse to publicly introduce the Pope's nuncio to the king? Why would not James call a parliament?



A circumstance now happened which greatly damped the hopes of his adversaries, and gave James so much the more confidence. The queen was declared to be pregnant, and the king flattered himself that he should transmit the crown to a male heir (Dec. 23). The opposite party immediately circulated a report that the alleged pregnancy was a mere pretext to conceal the introduction of a child to exclude the succession of the protestant heirs, and they determined to watch with jealousy every transaction of the court.

459. *Second Declaration of Indulgence—Seven Bishops imprisoned.*—The king, on his side, thinking himself sufficiently strong, issued, in April, 1688, a second declaration for granting liberty of religious worship, and admission to office without being subject to the Test act. This renewal appears to have created no great sensation, until the bishops were directed by an order in council to enjoin “that all divines should read the declaration after service in their churches (May 4).” The clergy were known universally to disapprove of these measures, and they were now resolved to disobey an order dictated by the most bigoted motives. They were determined to trust their cause to the favour of the people, and that universal jealousy which prevailed against the encroachment of the crown. The first champions on this service of danger were Lloyde, bishop of St. Asaph: Ken, of Bath and Wells; Turner, of Ely; Lake, of Chichester; White, of Peterborough; and Trelawney, of Bristol: these, together with Sancroft, the primate, concerted an address, in the form of a petition to the king, which, with the warmest expressions of zeal and submission, remonstrated, that they could not read his declaration consistent with their consciences, or the respect they owed the protestant religion. The petitioners were summoned before the council, and there the king in a fury questioned them whether they would acknowledge their petition. The bishops for some time declined giving an answer; but being urged by the chancellor, they at last owned it. On their refusal to give bail, an order was immediately drawn for their commitment to the Tower, and the crown lawyers received directions to prosecute them for a seditious libel. Their trial was fixed for the 29th of June, and their return was more splendidly attended than their im-

458. What report was circulated against the queen?

459. What led to the opposition against the declaration of indulgence? Who were the first champions against the encroachment of the crown? What was the nature of their petition to the king? What directions did James II. give on their acknowledging their petition and refusing to give bail?



prisonment. The cause was looked upon as involving the fate of the nation; and future freedom, or future slavery, awaited the decision. The dispute was learnedly managed by the lawyers on both sides. Holloway and Powell, two of the judges, declared themselves in favour of the bishops. The jury withdrew into a chamber, where they passed the whole night; but next morning they returned into court, and pronounced the bishops, Not guilty. Westminster Hall instantly rang with loud acclamations, which were communicated to the whole extent of the city. The news was proclaimed by cries and acclamations throughout London and the neighbouring villages. They even reached the camp at Hounslow, where the king was at dinner, in lord Feversham's tent. His majesty demanding the cause of those rejoicings, and being informed that it was nothing but the soldiers shouting at the delivery of the bishops, 'Call you that nothing?' cried he, 'but so much the worse for them.'

460. *Prince of Wales born—William of Orange lands at Torbay.*—Two days after the committal of the bishops to the Tower, the queen gave birth to a son, at the palace of St. James's (June 10). In consequence of the malignant rumours that had been circulated, the utmost care was taken in securing evidence of the birth by the presence of the queen-dowager, the ministers of state and ladies of rank, protestant and catholic, in the bed-room of the queen. The birth of a prince, in place of giving stability to the throne, hastened its downfall. Thousands had borne James's misrule in the hope of being relieved from their grievances on the succession of his elder daughter and her husband, the princess Mary and the prince of Orange. The loss of that hope made them desperate; their leaders held frequent meetings with the agents of the prince, and assured them that the country was ripe for a revolt. "William was a prince who had, from his earliest entrance into business, been immersed in dangers, calamities, and politics. The ambition of France, and the jealousies of Holland, had served to sharpen his talents, and to give him a propensity to intrigue. He now plainly saw that James had incurred the most violent hatred of his

459. Why did the king strike the names of two of the judges out of the list? Were the bishops found guilty? Where was the king when he received notice of their acquittal?

460. When and where was the prince of Wales born? What precautions were taken to verify his birth? On what prince did the nation now turn their eyes? Whom had the prince of Orange married? What had sharpened his talents and given him a propensity to intrigue?



subjects. He was minutely informed of their discontents; and, by seeming to discourage, still further increased them, hoping to gain the kingdom for himself in the sequel. He accordingly made preparations for an expedition against England. He had before this made considerable augmentations to the Dutch fleet, and the ships were then lying ready in the harbour. Some additional troops were also levied, and sums of money raised for other purposes, were converted to the advancement of this expedition. So well concerted were his measures, that, in three days, above 400 transports were hired, the army fell down the rivers and canals from Nimeguen, with all necessary stores; and the prince set sail from Helvoetsluys on the 19th of October, with a fleet of near 500 vessels, and an army of above 14,000 men; but a storm came on which so much damaged the fleet, that it was obliged to return and repair the mischief. This detained the expedition until the beginning of November, during which delay James and his council were distracted, and knew not what to do. It had been given out that this invasion was intended for the coast of France; and many of the English, who saw the fleet pass along their coasts, little expected to see it land on their own shores. Thus, after a voyage of two days, the prince landed his army at the village of Buxholme, in Torbay, on the 5th of November, which was the anniversary of the gunpowder treason."

461. *William is unopposed—Flight of the King.*—"But though the invitation from the English was very general, the prince of Orange for some time had the mortification to find himself joined by very few. He marched first to Exeter, where the country people had been so lately terrified with the executions which had ensued on Monmouth's rebellion, that they continued to observe a strict neutrality. He remained for ten days in expectation of being joined by the malcontents, and at last began to despair of success. But just when he began to deliberate about re-embarking his forces, he was joined by lord Cornbury, son to the earl of Clarendon, with a regiment of cavalry. The news of this example was rapidly spread, and the whole country soon after came flocking to his standard. The nobility, clergy, officers, and even the king's own servants and creatures, were unanimous in deserting James. Lord Churchill (afterwards the famous Marlborough) had been raised from the rank of a page, and had been in-

460. What means did William of Orange adopt to gain the kingdom for himself? With what force did he land in England?

461. Did the English at first crowd to his standard? Who first joined him?



vested with a high command in the army; had been created a peer, and owed his whole fortune to the king's bounty; even he deserted among the rest, and carried with him the duke of Grafton, natural son to the late king, colonel Berkeley, and a body of troops from Salisbury. The prince of Denmark, and Anne, James's favourite daughter, perceiving the desperation of his circumstances, resolved to leave him, and take part with the prevailing side (Nov. 25). When he was told that the prince and princess had followed the rest of his favourites, he was stung with the most bitter anguish. 'God help me,' cried he, in the extremity of his agony, 'my own children have forsaken me.' Alarmed every day more and more with the prospect of a general disaffection, the king was resolved to hearken to those who advised his quitting the kingdom. To prepare for this, he first sent away the queen and the infant prince, who arrived safely at Calais, under the conduct of count Lauzun, an old favourite of the French king (Dec. 9). Next night, he himself disappeared, attended only by Sir Edward Hales, a new convert; but he was discovered at Feversham, where a vessel had been hired to convey him to France, and was brought back by the mob to London (Dec. 14). Three days after, James was sent under a Dutch guard to Rochester, where, observing that he was entirely neglected by his own subjects, he resolved to seek safety from the king of France, the only friend he had still remaining. He accordingly fled to the sea-side, attended by his natural son the duke of Berwick, where he embarked for the Continent. He arrived in safety at Ambleteuse in Picardy, from whence he hastened to the court of France, where he still enjoyed the empty title of king, and the appellation of a saint, which flattered him more."

462. *The Convention—William and Mary elected King and Queen.*—The king having thus abandoned the throne, the prince of Orange issued the usual parliamentary writs for a convention of lords and commons to meet on the 22nd of January, 1689. On assembling, the first care of the convention was to invite the prince to continue the administration of affairs, in order to give a kind of parliamentary sanction to the power he had already exercised. They next

461. To whom was Anne the favourite daughter of James II. married? With whom did they take part? What was the expression of James on hearing they had deserted him? Why did he resolve to quit the kingdom? Whom did he send first away to Calais, and under whose conduct? Was he successful in his first attempt to escape? Who attended him when he embarked for the Continent? What title did he retain at the court of France?



proceeded to the settlement of the crown: some declared for a regent; others, that the princess of Orange should be invested with regal power, and the young prince of Wales considered as supposititious. After a long debate in both houses, the question was finally decided in the house of lords in favour of a new sovereign, and against a regent, by a majority of two voices, 51 to 49. It was also agreed that the prince and princess of Orange should reign jointly as king and queen of England, while the administration of government should be in the prince only, during their joint lives; and after their decease to be in the heirs of the body of the said princess; in default of such issue, to James's younger daughter, the princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body; and in default of such issue to the heirs of the body of the said prince of Orange (Feb. 13, 1689).

463. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—As the restoration of Charles II. was quickly followed by the unconditional abolition of the feudal land-tenures, which converted the landholders under the State into the landowners of the State; so the flight of James II. was immediately followed by the abolition of the feudal supremacy of the crown, and its assumption by the parliament. But as the one house was and is a hereditary body, chiefly composed of the great landowners, and the other of elected members from that class, the supreme power became virtually vested in the landowners. The above innovations—the abolition of the feudal land-tenures and of the supremacy of the crown, each the most important that had been effected since the Conquest, together overthrew the feudal monarchy which had existed for nearly six hundred years. Under it, the king governed as well as reigned; while under the new settlement of the crown, it was intended that the king should reign with the least possible individual authority, and that the parliament should govern with all but absolute authority. In the re-settlement of the government on the Restoration and on the so-called Revolution of 1688, it cannot be said that the people were in any way consulted, or their interests in any way considered. The landocracy were the alone gainers by the great constitutional changes which were effected at both epochs.

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### WILLIAM AND MARY.

Began to reign February 13th, 1689;—William III. alone from December 16th, 1694;—died March 8th, 1702.

464. *England and Scotland for William—Ireland for James.*—The accession of William and Mary, on the terms offered

462. What were the different opinions respecting a successor to James II.? By how many votes was it carried in favour of a king in preference to a regent? Who were appointed joint sovereigns of Britain? What were the other provisions of the act of Settlement?



by parliament, is the era of what is called the present English constitution. As William's nomination to the crown was wholly by the choice of parliament, the benefit was loaded with whatever stipulations were considered requisite to limit his power on every side. "Although he was acknowledged king in England, Scotland and Ireland were still undetermined. The revolution in England had been brought about by a coalition of the whig and tory aristocracy; but in Scotland it was effected by the whigs almost alone. They soon came to a resolution, that James II. had, to use their own expression, *forfaulted* his right to the crown, a term which, in the law-language of that country, excluded not only him, but all his posterity. They therefore quickly recognised the authority of William, and took that opportunity to abolish episcopacy, which had long been disagreeable to the nation. Ireland now alone remained to the deposed king of all his former possessions; and he had some hopes of maintaining his ground there, by the assistance which he was promised from France. Accordingly James II. sailed from Brest with a large body of French troops for Ireland, and arrived at Kinsale on the 12th of March, 1689. He soon after made his public entry into Dublin, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. He found the appearance of things in that country equal to his most sanguine expectations. Tyrconnel, the lord-lieutenant, was devoted to his interests; his old army was steady, and a new one raised, amounting together to nearly 40,000 men. The protestants over the greater part of Ireland were disarmed, the province of Ulster alone denied his authority; while the papists, confident of success, received him with shouts of joy and superstitious processions, which gave him still greater pleasure. In this situation, most of those who were attached to the revolution, were obliged to retire into Scotland and England, or hide themselves from their enemies. The bravest of them, however, to the number of 10,000 men, gathered around Londonderry, resolved to make their last stand at that place, for their religion and liberty."

465. *James besieges Londonderry.*—"James opened the Irish parliament in Dublin on the 29th of April, and soon after went to lay siege to Londonderry, a town of small importance in itself, but rendered famous by the stand which it made on this occasion. The governor, colonel

464. Why is the accession of William called the era of the English constitution? What was the Scots' decision against James II.? How did the Irish act? When and where did James land in Ireland? How was he received?



Lundie, being secretly attached to James, prevailed upon the officers and magistrates to send an offer of surrender. But the inhabitants, being apprised of his intention, deposed him, and boldly resolved to maintain the town, though destitute of leaders. The town was weak in its fortifications, having only a wall eight or nine feet thick, and weaker still in its artillery, there being not above 20 serviceable guns upon the works. The new-made garrison, however, made up every deficiency by courage: one Walker, a dissenting minister, and major Baker, put themselves at the head of these resolute men; and thus abandoned to their fate, they prepared for a vigorous resistance. The batteries of the besiegers soon began to play upon the town with great fury; and several attacks were made, but always repulsed with resolution. All the success that valour could promise was on their side; but they, after some time, found themselves exhausted by continual fatigue; and reduced to the greatest extremities for want of provision. They had even the mortification to see some ships, which had arrived with supplies and reinforcements from England, under general Kirke, prevented from sailing up the river by the batteries of the enemy, and a boom by which the besiegers had blocked up the channel. All that Kirke could do was to promise them speedy relief, and to exhort them to bear their miseries a little longer, with assurances of a glorious termination of them all. They had now consumed the last remains of their provision; and supported life by eating horses, dogs, and all kinds of vermin, while even this loathsome food began to fail them. They had still further the misery of seeing above 4000 of their fellow-protestants, from different parts of the country, driven by Rosene, James's general, under the walls of the town, where they were kept three whole days without provision. At last general Kirke, on receiving intelligence that the garrison, sunk with fatigues and famine, had sent proposals of capitulation, resolved upon an attempt to throw provisions into the place, by means of three victuallers and a frigate to cover them. As soon as these vessels sailed up the river, the eyes of all were fixed upon them; the besiegers eager to destroy them, and the garrison as resolute for their defence. The foremost of the victuallers at the first shock broke the boom, but was stranded by the violence of her own shock. Upon this, a shout burst from the besiegers, which reached the camp and the city. They advanced with fury against a prize which they considered as inevitable; while the smoke of



the cannon on both sides wrapped the whole scene in darkness. But to the astonishment of all, in a little time the victualler was seen emerging from imminent danger, having got off by the rebound of her own guns, while she led up her little squadron to the very walls of the town. The joy of the inhabitants at this unexpected relief, was only equalled by the rage and disappointment of the besiegers. The army of James was so dispirited by the success of this enterprise, that they abandoned the siege in the night; and retired with precipitation, after having lost above 9000 men before the place (July 31, 1689). Both camps remained for some time in sight of each other, and as disease prevailed to a great extent in each, they both, as if by mutual agreement, quitted their camps at the same time, and retired into winter-quarters."

466. *The Victory of the Boyne.*—"William at length perceived that his neglect of Ireland had been an error that required more than usual diligence to redress. He was afraid to send the late king's army to fight against him, and therefore raised twenty-three new regiments for that purpose. These, with two Dutch battalions, and four of French refugees, together with the Inniskilliners and other bodies of Irish protestants, were appointed for the reduction of Ireland. On landing at Carrickfergus in June, 1690, William found himself at the head of an army of 36,000 effective soldiers. All the measures taken by William were dictated by prudence and valour, those pursued by his opponents seemed dictated by obstinacy and infatuation. They neglected to harass him in his difficult march from the north; they neglected to oppose him at the strong pass at Newry; as he advanced they fell back first from Dundalk, and then from Ardee; and at last, upon the 29th of June, they fixed their camp in a strong position on the other side of the Boyne. It was upon the opposite banks of this river that both armies came in sight of each other, inflamed with all the animosities arising from religion, hatred, and revenge. The Boyne at this place was not so deep but that men might wade over on foot; however, the banks were rugged, and rendered dangerous by old houses and ditches, which served to defend the latent enemy. William, who now headed the protestant army, had no sooner arrived, than he rode along the side of the river in sight of both armies, to make proper observations upon the plan of battle; but, in the meantime, being perceived by the enemy, a cannon was privately brought out, and planted

466. When did William land in Ireland? What forces had he? Where did the hostile armies first come in sight of each other?



against him where he was sitting. The shot killed several of his followers, and he himself was wounded in the shoulder. The next morning, at six o'clock, king William gave orders to force a passage over the river. This the army undertook in three different places; and, after a furious cannonading, the battle began with unusual vigour. The Irish troops, though reckoned the best in Europe abroad, had always fought indifferently at home. After an obstinate resistance, they fled with precipitation, leaving the French and Swiss regiments, who came to their assistance, to make the best retreat which they could. William led on his horse in person; and contributed, by his activity and vigilance, to secure the victory. James was not in the battle, but stood aloof during the action, on the hill of Dunmore, surrounded with some squadrons of horse; and at intervals was heard to exclaim, when he saw his own troops repulsing those of the enemy, 'O spare my English subjects!' The Irish lost about 1500 men, and the protestants about one-third of that number. The victory was splendid, and almost decisive; but the death of the duke of Schomberg, who was shot as he was crossing the water, seemed to outweigh the whole loss sustained by the enemy."

467. *Athlone, Aughrim, and Limerick reduced, 1691.*—  
 "This blow totally depressed the hopes of James. He fled to Dublin, advised the magistrates to obtain the best terms they could from the victor, and then set out for Waterford, where he embarked for France, in a vessel fitted for his reception. Had he possessed either conduct or courage, he might still have headed his troops, and fought with advantage. His friends, however, were determined to second those interests which he himself had abandoned. Limerick still held out for him, and braved all the attempts of William's army to reduce it. Sarsfield, a popular and experienced general, put himself at the head of the army that had been routed at the Boyne, and went further into the country to defend the banks of the river Shannon, where he resolved to await the enemy. James, however, who would not defend the country himself, determined that none but such as were agreeable to him should defend it. He therefore superseded Sarsfield in the command in chief by St. Ruth, a French general, who had signalised himself against the protestants in France, which appointment gave great offence to the Irish. Ginckle, who assumed the command on the return of king William to England, advanced with his forces to meet the enemy towards the Shannon. In order to pass that broad and dangerous



river, it was necessary to obtain possession of Athlone, which surrendered after a vigorous resistance (July 1). The last battle fought in favour of James was at Aughrim. His supporters fought with surprising fury, and the horse were several times repulsed; but the English wading through the middle of a bog up to the waist in mud, and rallying with some difficulty on the firm ground on the other side, renewed the combat with great fury. St. Ruth, the French general, being killed by a cannon ball, his fate so dispirited his troops that they gave way on all sides, after having lost above five thousand of the flower of their army (July 13). Limerick, the last retreat of the Irish forces, made a brave defence: but soon seeing the enemy advanced within ten paces of the bridge-foot, and perceiving themselves surrounded on all sides, they determined to capitulate; a negotiation was immediately begun, and hostilities ceased on both sides (Oct. 3). The Roman catholics, by this capitulation, were restored to the enjoyment of those liberties in the exercise of their religion which they had possessed in the reign of Charles II. All persons were indulged with free leave to remove with their families and effects to any other country, except England and Scotland. In consequence of this, above 14,000 of those who had fought for James went over into France, having transports provided by government for conveying them thither."

468. *French Preparations for Invasion—Victory off La Hogue, 1692.*—"The reduction of Ireland made the French at last sensible of their impolitic parsimony in losing a kingdom whose divisions would no longer be of use to them. They were willing, therefore, to concur with the fugitive king, and resolved to make a descent upon England in his favour. In pursuance of this scheme, Louis XIV. supplied James with an army consisting of a body of French troops, some English and Scotch refugees, and the Irish regiments, which had been transported from Limerick into France, now become excellent soldiers by long discipline and severe duty. This army was assembled between Cherbourg and La Hogue, and was commanded by king James in person. More than three hundred transports were provided for landing it on the opposite English coast; and Tourville, the French admiral, at the head of sixty-three ships of the line, was appointed to

467. Where, and on what day, was the last battle in favour of James fought? What privileges were granted to the papists by William III. after that victory?

468. What forces were collected for the invasion of England? Who commanded the French fleet?



favour the descent. These preparations were soon known in England, and every precaution taken for a vigorous opposition. Admiral Russell sailed from St. Helen's on the 18th of May, with 99 ships of war, including frigates and fire-ships; next morning, at daybreak, the enemy under admiral Tourville were discovered off La Hogue, prepared to give him battle. At eleven o'clock the engagement began between the two admirals with great fury; the rest of the fleet on each side soon followed the example. This memorable engagement lasted for ten hours, and all James's hopes depended on the event. Victory at last declared on the side of numbers; the French fled for Conquet road, having lost four ships in the first day's action. The pursuit continued for two days following; three French ships of the line were destroyed the next day, and eighteen more burned by Sir George Rooke, which had taken refuge in the bay of La Hogue. In this manner all the preparations on the side of France were frustrated; and so decisive was the blow, that from that time France seemed to relinquish all their claims to the ocean."

469. *James at St. Germain's: his Death.*—"James was now reduced to the lowest state of despondence: his designs upon England were quite frustrated, so that nothing was left his friends but the hopes of assassinating the monarch on the throne. These base attempts, as barbarous as they were useless, were not entirely disagreeable to the temper of James. It is said he encouraged and proposed them; but they all proved unserviceable to his cause, and only ended in the destruction of the undertakers. In the latter part of his life James inspired the superstitious with reverence for his piety. He subjected himself to acts of uncommon penance and mortification. He frequently visited the poor monks of La Trappe, who were edified by his humble and pious deportment. His pride and arbitrary temper seemed to have vanished with his greatness; he became affable, kind, and easy, to all his dependents; and in his last illness conjured his son to prefer religion to every worldly advantage, a counsel which that prince strictly obeyed. James II. died at St. Germain's, with great marks of devotion, on the 16th of Sept., 1701, and was interred, at his own request, in the church of the English Benedictines at Paris, without any funeral solemnity."

468. Who commanded the English fleet? Where, and when, did the hostile fleets engage? What was the result?

469. To what situation was James reduced? and what were the designs of his friends? How did he spend the last years of his life? When, and where, did James die?



470. *William's personal Policy: his Submission to Parliament.*—"The defeat at La Hogue confirmed king William's safety, and secured his title to the crown. The Jacobites were ever feeble, but they were now a disunited faction; new parties arose among those who had been friends to the revolution, and the want of a common enemy produced dissensions among themselves. William now began to find as much opposition and uneasiness from his parliament at home, as from the enemy in the field. His chief motive for accepting the crown was to engage England more deeply in the concerns of Europe. It had ever been the object of his policy to humble the French, whom he considered as the most formidable enemies of that liberty which he idolised; and all his politics consisted in forming alliances against them. Many of the English, therefore, considered the interest of the nation as sacrificed to foreign connections; and complained that the war on the Continent fell most heavily on them, though they had the least interest in its success. To these motives of discontent were added the king's partiality to his own countrymen, in prejudice of his English subjects, together with his proud reserve and sullen silence, so unlike the behaviour of all their former kings. William, however, little regarded those discontents, which he knew must be consequent on all government; accustomed to opposition, he heard their complaints with the most phlegmatic indifference. Upon accepting the crown, he resolved to preserve, as much as he was able, that share of prerogative which still was left him. He however became at length fatigued with opposing the laws which parliament every day were laying round his authority, and gave up the contest. He admitted every restraint upon the prerogative in England, upon condition of being properly supplied with the means of humbling the power of France. War, and the balance of power in Europe, were all he knew, or indeed desired to understand. Provided the parliament furnished him with supplies for these purposes, he permitted them to rule the internal polity at their pleasure. The war with France continued during the greatest part of this king's reign, but at length the treaty of Ryswick put an end to those contentions in which England had engaged without policy, and came off without advantage (1697). In the general pacification, her interests seemed

470. What did William gain by the victory off La Hogue? What were his chief motives for accepting the English crown? What did he resolve to do after his accession? Did he succeed? How did parliament act? Upon what condition did William admit of every restraint upon the royal prerogative?



entirely deserted; and for all the treasures she had sent to the Continent, and all the blood which she had shed there, the only equivalent she received was an acknowledgment of king William's title from Louis XIV. of France."

471. *Discontent of William—The Army reduced to 7000, 1699.*—"The king, now freed from a foreign war, laid himself out to strengthen his authority at home; but he showed that he was but ill acquainted with the disposition of the people he was to govern. As he could not bear the thoughts of being a king without military command, he conceived hopes of keeping up the forces that were granted him in time of danger, during the continuance of a profound peace. But what was his mortification to find the commons pass a vote, that all the forces in English pay, exceeding 7000 men, should be forthwith disbanded, and that those retained should be natural-born subjects of England." William entreated the commons to allow his Dutch guards to remain; but they adhered to their resolution. "A monarch bred up in camps as he was, and who knew scarce any other pleasure but that of reviewing troops, and dictating to generals, could not think of laying down at once all his power and all his amusements. He professed himself therefore highly displeased with the vote of the commons; and his indignation was kindled to such a pitch, that he actually conceived a design of abandoning the government. These altercations between the king and parliament continued during the remainder of this reign. William considered the commons as a body of men desirous of power for themselves, and consequently bent upon obstructing all his projects to secure the liberties of Europe. He seemed but little attached to any particular party in the house, all of whom he found at times deserted or opposed him. He therefore veered to whigs and tories indiscriminately, as interest, or the immediate exigence demanded. He was taught to consider England as a place of labour, anxiety, and altercation. If he had any time for amusement or relaxation, he retired to Loo in Holland, where, among a few friends, he gave a loose to those coarse festivities which alone he was capable of relishing."

472. *William urges the Renewal of War.*—Peace had not been long concluded with France when William began to plan a second grand alliance for carrying on a new war against that nation. In this he was too successful. James II. hav-

470. What did England gain by the long war against France?

471. What caused William's discontent? What did he ask of the commons, and what did they do? What was his opinion of the members of the house of commons?



ing died at this time, a clamour was raised against Louis XIV. for acknowledging the prince of Wales, then in his thirteenth year, as king. On opening his sixth and last parliament (Dec. 1701), William urged that circumstance as a sufficient ground for war, and expressed his hope that liberal supplies would be granted to enable him to resent the national insult, and to secure the protestant succession. It would appear that the tories and whigs vied with each other in meeting the king's wishes. The king's contingent of 80,000 men—one half landmen, the other seamen—was voted without opposition. A bill of attainder was also passed against the Pretender, as James's son was designated, and another to secure the succession of protestants only.

473. *Death and Character of William III.*, 1702.—An accident to the king's person now startled both the parliament and the nation. "William was naturally of a very feeble constitution, and it was by this time almost exhausted by a series of continual disquietude and action. He had endeavoured to repair his constitution, or, at least, to conceal its decays, by exercise and riding. On the 21st of February, in riding to Hampton-court from Kensington, his horse fell under him, and he was thrown with such violence that his collar-bone was fractured. His attendants conveyed him to the palace of Hampton-court, where the fracture was reduced, and in the evening he returned to Kensington in his coach. The jolting of the carriage disunited the fracture once more, and the bones were again replaced under Bidloe, his Dutch physician, and Roujat, his French surgeon. This, in a robust constitution, would have been a trifling misfortune, but in him it was fatal. For some time he appeared in a fair way of recovery; but falling asleep on his couch, he was seized with a shivering, which terminated in a fever and diarrhoea, which soon became dangerous and desperate. Perceiving his end approaching, the objects of his former care lay still next his heart; and the fate of Europe seemed to remove the sensations he might be supposed to feel for his own. The earl of Albemarle arriving from Holland, he conferred with him in private on the posture of affairs abroad. Two days after, having received the sacrament from archbishop Tenison, he expired in the fifty-second year of his age, after having

472. What did the king of France do on the death of James II.? What did William urge in consequence? How did the house of commons act?

473. To what accident was the death of William attributed? What object engrossed his attention in the last days of his life? With whom did he converse in private on the state of affairs abroad? In what year did he die?



reigned thirteen years (March 8). He was in his person of a middle stature, a thin body, and a delicate constitution. He had an aquiline nose, sparkling eyes, a large forehead, and a grave solemn aspect. He left behind him the character of a great politician, though he had never been popular; and a formidable general, though he was seldom victorious. His deportment was grave, phlegmatic, and sullen; nor did he ever show any fire but in the day of battle. He despised flattery, yet loved dominion. Greater as the stadtholder of Holland than as king of England; to the one he was a father, to the other a suspicious friend. His character and success serve to show, that moderate abilities will achieve the greatest purposes, if the objects aimed at be pursued with perseverance, and planned without unnecessary or ostentatious refinement." William died childless, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

474. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). The accession of William is the era of parliamentary government exercised by a committee of its members, called the king's ministers the cabinet, or the ministry. Although chosen by the king, the ministers are responsible to parliament for even their acceptance of office, and for every subsequent administrative act, until sanctioned by parliament. Consequently no act of government is valid unless officially authorised by a minister of State. Hence the dogma, that the king, in his capacity of chief of the State, can do no wrong. The abnegation of sovereign power was at first most distasteful to king William, but he at last sanctioned all restrictions imposed by parliament "on condition of being properly supplied with the means of humbling the power of France."

(2). So long as the monarch governed, and the ordinary revenue was supplemented by assessments on the land, parliament was sparing in its grants, in order that its authority might be felt and to lessen the burden on the landocracy; but when it assumed the government, and when the revenue came to be principally raised by indirect taxation, chiefly contributed by the commonalty, money was voted with an unheard of prodigality. It was with difficulty that Charles I. obtained £370,000 from parliament during the first fifteen years of his reign, or less than £25,000 a year; while the average annual parliamentary grants in the reign of William exceeded five millions.

(3). Until the revolution, parliament was opposed to wars, as the expense chiefly fell on the land; but after the commons resolved "that no money should be raised upon land without the special leave of the house," William's passion for war was not resisted. All writers are agreed that from this time a reckless extravagance became the practice of every cabinet. Ministers appropriated to themselves, and granted away the crown lands without consideration, to increase, as it was said, the future dependence of the sovereign. William's ministers are also accused of embezzling the revenue, and opposing inquiry. In 1701, the house of commons resolved, "that it was notorious, that many millions of money had been given to his majesty for the service of the



public, which remain unaccounted for." It was then stated, that in five years, £10,864,873 had been embezzled or unaccounted for. Every measure proposed for the public benefit was rendered abortive, the leading object of the ministers and the members of both houses being to enrich themselves, and to exempt their lands from taxation. Ministers favoured these views, to obtain support to carry their measures. New offices were created, pensions granted, and bribery practised, to increase their influence. Not satisfied with the disbursement of the revenue that could be raised from customs, excise, lotteries, land taxes, poll taxes, taxes on marriages, births, &c., the ministers mortgaged the taxes, and incurred a state debt which amounted at the death of William to £16,394,742.

(4). In this reign it became established, that parliament is alone responsible for the administration of government. By this great constitutional principle, the sovereign has always the power of freeing himself from popular odium by dismissing his ministers, and if that be insufficient, by also dissolving parliament and summoning the election of a new one, when the future course of government is left to the determination of the constituencies.

(5). In 1694, the Bank of England was established by royal charter. It was suggested by William Paterson, a Scotchman of great natural abilities, and was intended to support the public credit, which was then so low that parliament agreed, for the sake of receiving a loan of £1,200,000, to allow the bank to issue notes payable on demand, and to pay interest, at the rate of 8 per cent. and £4,000 for the expense of management.

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## ANNE.

Began to reign March 8th, 1702;—died August 1st, 1714.

475. *Character of Anne—War declared against France.*—"The death of William III. was thought at first irreparable; but the kingdom soon found that the happiness of any reign is to be estimated as much from the general manners of the times, as the private virtues of the monarch. Queen Anne, married to prince George of Denmark, with no very shining talents and few exalted virtues, ascended the throne in the thirty-eighth year of her age, to the general satisfaction of all parties. She was the second daughter of James II., by his first wife, the daughter of chancellor Hyde, afterwards earl of Clarendon. As she had been taught in the preceding part of her life to suffer many mortifications from the reigning king, she had thus learned to conceal her resentments; and the natural tranquillity of her temper still more contributed to make her overlook every opposition. The late king, whose whole life had been spent in one continued opposition

475. Of whom was queen Anne the wife and daughter?



to the king of France, and all whose politics consisted in forming alliances against him, had left England at the eve of a war with that monarch. The present queen, who generally took the advice of her ministry in every important transaction, was upon this occasion urged by opposing counsels. Her first cousin, the earl of Rochester, lord-lieutenant of Ireland and the chief of the tory faction, urged the impossibility of England's reaping any advantage by the most distinguished success upon the Continent, and exposed the folly of loading the nation with debts to increase the riches of its commercial rivals. Among those who declared for prosecuting the late king's intentions of going to war with France, was the earl, afterwards better known by the title of the duke, of Marlborough." His opinion being embraced by the majority of the council, the queen resolved to declare war, and communicated her intentions to the house of commons, by whom it was approved, and war was proclaimed against France accordingly, which was seconded by similar declarations by the Dutch and Germans, on the same day (May 4). In the queen's declaration of war, Louis XIV. was accused of having seized the greater part of the Spanish Netherlands, of attempting to unite the crown of Spain to his own dominions by placing his grandson (Philip V.) upon the throne of that kingdom, of entertaining views against the liberties of Europe, and of having offered an unpardonable insult in declaring the pretended prince of Wales to be king of England.

476. *The Rise of Marlborough.*—John Churchill, second son of Sir Winston Churchill, of Dorsetshire, who suffered greatly for his loyalty to Charles II., began life as a court page, and was raised by James II. to the peerage. Having deserted his old master, he attached himself in appearance to king William; but had still a secret partiality in favour of the tories, from whom he had received his first employments. Ever willing to thwart and undermine the measures of William, he became a favourite with Anne for that very reason; she loved a man who still professed reverence and veneration for her father, and paid the utmost attention to herself. But Marlborough had still another hold upon the queen's affections and esteem. He was married to a lady who was the queen's peculiar confidante, and who governed her in every action of life with unbounded authority. By this canal, Marlborough actually directed the queen in all her resolutions; and while his rivals strove to advance their

475. Against what nation did Anne declare war, and by whom was she seconded? What were the alleged grounds for war?

476. What are the particulars of Marlborough's life until this time?



reputation in the council, he was more effectually securing his in the closet. It was not, therefore, without private reasons that Marlborough inclined for war. It first gave him an opportunity of taking a different side of the question from the earl of Rochester, whose influence he desired to lessen; but he had in the next place hopes of being appointed general of the forces that should be sent over to the Continent. His hopes were not disappointed. When war was declared, the queen conferred upon him the Order of the Garter, and appointed him commander of the British forces and ambassador extraordinary to Holland. The States also gave him the command of their troops, so that he was in fact commander-in-chief of the allied forces.

477. *Marlborough as General-in-chief.*—"Upon the death of William, Louis XIV. expected to enter upon a field open for conquests and fame. The vigilance of his late rival had blasted all his laurels, and circumscribed his power; for even though defeated, William had still been formidable. At the news of his death, therefore, the French monarch could not suppress his rapture; but his pleasure was soon to have an end. A much more formidable enemy was now rising up to oppose him; a more refined politician, a more skilful general, backed by the confidence of an indulgent sovereign and the efforts of a willing nation." Marlborough took the command of the allied army in June, 1702, and soon became the most formidable enemy to France that England had produced since the conquering times of Cressy and Agincourt. He had learned the first rudiments of the art of war from the famous French marshal Turenne, under whom he had served as a volunteer. His first attempt to deviate from the general practices of the army, which were founded in error, was to advance subaltern officers whose merit had hitherto been neglected. Regardless of seniority, wherever he found abilities he was sure to promote them; and thus he had all the upper ranks of commanders rather remarkable for their skill and talents than for their age and experience. The English alliance, during the ten years of what is called 'the war of the Spanish succession,' comprised Holland, Austria, Germany, Portugal, and Savoy; and the allies of France were Spain, Bavaria, Cologne, and Mantua. This war was carried on with the greatest vigour on both sides. Although Marlborough achieved many victories, they only

477. Why did Louis XIV. rejoice to hear of the death of William? What is said of Marlborough's abilities in peace and war? Under whom did he learn the art of war? How did he distribute his military patronage? What was the consequence?



added to the national renown, without being of any advantage whatever.

478. *Summary of the ten Campaigns, from 1702-11.*—In this work it will be sufficient merely to enumerate the results of the successive campaigns in the war of the Spanish succession. In 1702 the French invaded Holland, and were repulsed by Marlborough, who took Liege and Venloo, and drove the French out of Guelderland. In 1703 the French conquered the Imperialists at Stollhafen, Hochsted, and Spiers. In 1704 Marlborough entered Germany, to aid the emperor, and gained the great victory of Blenheim, when all Bavaria was overrun, and Alsace was entered by the allies; but these successes were partly counterbalanced by the advantage gained by the French in Spain and Italy. In 1705 the French maintained their superiority in Italy; but in Spain, almost the whole of Valentia and Catalonia submitted to Charles; and Marlborough was unable to gain any advantage in Flanders. In 1706 Louis made the greatest possible effort to maintain his armies in Italy, Germany, and Spain, and to act offensively in Flanders; he was, however, driven out of Italy by prince Eugene; defeated at Ramillies, by Marlborough, when all Brabant, and nearly all Spanish Flanders submitted to the conquerors; and the French were also unsuccessful in Spain. Louis now made overtures for peace, but the self-interest of the duke of Marlborough, prince Eugene, and the Dutch pensionary Heinsius, prevented the acceptance of terms which conceded all the objects of the war. In 1707 Louis put forth all his energies: his arms triumphed in Spain over the English and Portuguese at Almanza, and forced the Imperialists to raise the siege of Toulon. In 1708 the French had the advantage in Spain and in Italy; but were worsted by Marlborough in the hard-fought battle of Oudenarde, in Flanders. In 1709 Louis again solicited peace, and offered to do everything that justice could possibly demand; but again Marlborough, prince Eugene, and Heinsius retarded the repose of Europe. These overtures for peace were followed by the obstinate and bloody battle of Malplaquet, in which the allies lost 15,000 men, but remained masters of the field. In 1710 Louis again unsuccessfully applied for peace; in Flanders, the French remained on the defensive; and in Spain forced general Stanhope to surrender with 5000 men, at Brihuega. In 1711 the English nation had grown so tired of the

478. What were the principal events in the campaign of 1702, &c.? Where, and when, did the allies gain great victories? What led to the termination of the war?



expenses of the war, that an outcry was raised against its continuance; the tories also came into power, which deprived the duke of Marlborough of his dominant influence. These circumstances, together with an inactive campaign, induced the new ministry to abruptly terminate the war, and to open negotiations for a separate peace with France.

479. *Capture of Gibraltar, 1704.*—During this war “a conquest of much national importance was gained with little expense of blood and treasure in Spain. The ministry of England, understanding that the French were employed in equipping a strong squadron in Brest, sent out a fleet under the command of Sir Cloudesley Shovel and Sir George Rooke to watch their motions. Sir George, however, had further orders to convoy a body of forces in transport ships to Barcelona. Finding no hopes from this expedition, Rooke and Shovel resolved to make an attempt upon Gibraltar, a city then belonging to the Spaniards, at that time ill provided with a garrison, as neither expecting nor fearing such an attempt. This town stands on a precipitous rock upon a tongue of land, as the mariners call it, which is inaccessible on every side but one. The prince of Hesse landed his troops, to the number of 800, on the continent adjoining, and summoned the town to surrender, but without effect. Next day the admiral gave orders for cannonading the town; and, perceiving that the enemy were driven from their fortifications at a place called the South Mole Head, ordered captain Whitaker to man all the boats, and assault that quarter. Those officers who happened to be nearest the Mole immediately manned their boats without orders, and entered the fortifications sword in hand, keeping their ground until they were sustained by captain Whitaker, and the rest of the seamen, who took a redoubt, between the Mole and the town, by storm. Then the governor capitulated, and the prince of Hesse entered the place, amazed at the success of the attempt, considering the strength of the fortifications (1704). When the news of this conquest was brought to England, it was for some time in debate whether it was a capture worth thanking the admiral for. It was at last considered as unworthy public gratitude; and, while the duke of Marlborough was extolled for useless services, Sir George Rooke was left

479. Whose motions were Sir Cloudesley Shovel and Sir George Rooke sent to watch? Why did Sir George re-embark the troops which he had landed at Barcelona? On what town did these two commanders resolve to make an attempt? Describe the situation of Gibraltar, and the manner in which it was taken. What was the nature of the debate in parliament respecting its capture?



to neglect, and soon displaced from his command, for having so essentially served his country. A striking instance, that, even in the most enlightened age, popular applause is most usually misplaced. Gibraltar has ever since remained in the possession of the English, and continues of the utmost use in refitting that part of the navy destined to annoy an enemy, or protect our trade in the Mediterranean. Here the English have a repository capable of containing all things necessary for the repairing of fleets or the equipment of armies."

480. *Union with Scotland*.—In 1706, while the English arms were victorious abroad, the government thought it a favourable opportunity for promoting a union between the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, which, though they were governed by one sovereign since the accession of James I., yet were still ruled by their respective parliaments, and often pursued opposite interests and different designs. This union had been vainly attempted under James I., Charles I., and William, though compulsorily effected by Cromwell. It was again proposed at the commencement of this reign; but some disputes arising relative to the trade to the East, the conference was broken up, and it was thought that an adjustment would be impossible. It was now revived by an act in either parliament, granting power to fifty-three commissioners named on the part of both nations to treat on the preliminary articles of a union, which should afterwards undergo a more thorough discussion by the legislative body of both kingdoms. The choice of these commissioners was left to the queen; and she took care that none should be employed but such as heartily wished to promote so desirable a measure. As she frequently exhorted the commissioners to despatch, the articles of this famous union were soon agreed to, and signed by the commissioners on the 22nd of July, 1706. It now only remained to lay them before the parliaments of both nations. When the Scotch parliament met in October, the articles of union were discussed with great acrimony; addresses came from several counties against it; and tumults were raised in Edinburgh and other places; but notwithstanding all the opposition that was made, the articles were ratified by a majority of 110 to 69, on the 16th of January, 1707. About a week after, a similar ratification was made by the English parliament. To this most beneficial measure,

479. What injustice did Sir George Rooke experience? What advantages resulted from the possession of Gibraltar?

480. What previous attempts had been made to effect a union between England and Scotland? How was the measure received in Scotland? When and by what majority was it carried in the Scots parliament?



the most violent opposition was made by several of the Scotch nobility, but the majority of these were at last bought off for 398,000*l.* This bribe, for it was nothing else, obtained the gentle name of 'the equivalent.' In the distribution of the residue of this sum, almost each Scotch nobleman received sums varying in amount down to *eleven pounds!*

481. *Abstract of the Articles of Union.*—"In this famous treaty it was stipulated that the succession to the united kingdoms should be vested in the house of Hanover; that the united kingdoms should be represented by one and the same parliament; that all the subjects of Great Britain should enjoy a communication of privileges and advantages; that they should have the same allowance and privileges with respect to commerce and customs; that the laws concerning public right, civil government, and policy, should be the same throughout the two united kingdoms; but that no alteration should be made in laws which concerned private rights, except for the evident benefit of the subjects of Scotland; that the courts of session, and all other courts of judicature in Scotland, should remain as then constituted by the laws of that kingdom, with the same authority and privileges as before the union; that Scotland should be represented in the parliament of Great Britain by sixteen peers, and forty-five commoners, both to be elected in such a manner as should be settled by the then parliament of Scotland; that all peers of Scotland should be considered as peers of Great Britain, and rank immediately after the English peers of the like degrees, at the time of the union, and before such as should be created after it; that they should enjoy all the privileges of English peers, except that of sitting or voting in parliament, or sitting upon the trial of peers; that all the insignia of royalty and government should remain as they were; that all laws and statutes in either kingdom, so far as they might be inconsistent with the terms of these articles, should cease, and be declared void by the respective parliaments of the two kingdoms;" that whenever 1,997,763*l.* shall be raised as a land-tax in England, the quota of Scotland shall be 48,000*l.* free of all charge, and so proportionally for any greater or lesser sum raised in England; that the coin shall be of the same standard and value throughout the United Kingdom; that the same weights and measures shall be used; that all heritable offices, heritable jurisdictions, offices and jurisdictions for life, be reserved to the owners, as rights of property, in the same manner as they are now enjoyed; that there be

480. What influence was employed to obtain a majority of peers?

481. Recapitulate the principal articles of the union.



one great seal for the United Kingdom, which shall be different from the great seal now used in either kingdom; and that the quartering the arms, as may best suit the Union, be left to her majesty.

482. *Union-settlement of Religion.*—As the commissioners were prohibited from treating of or concerning religious matters, a separate statute was enacted for securing the effectual and unalterable continuance of the churches of England and of Scotland as then by law established. The principal provisions of this statute in respect to Scotland are:—That the worship, discipline, and government of the true protestant church of Scotland be continued for ever; and her majesty confirms more especially ‘An act of the first parliament of king William and queen Mary, entitled an act for ratifying the Confession of Faith, and settling presbyterian church government and discipline by kirk sessions, presbyteries, provincial synods, and general assemblies;’ and that the said presbyterian government shall be the only ecclesiastical government in Scotland. For the security of the church of England it was provided that the statute enacted in the fifth year of Elizabeth, entitled ‘An act for the ministers of the church to be of sound religion;’ and the statute of the thirteenth year of Charles II., entitled ‘An act for the uniformity of public prayers and administration of sacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, and for establishing the form of making, ordaining, and consecrating bishops, priests, and deacons, in the church of England;’ and all other acts then in force, for the establishment and preservation of the church of England, shall remain and be in force for ever. It was further provided, that every king or queen shall at his or her coronation, in the presence of all persons attending, assisting, or otherwise then and there present, take and subscribe an oath to maintain and preserve inviolably the said settlement of the churches of Scotland and of England.

483. *Decline of the Whigs—Intrigues of Mrs. Masham, 1707.*—“It is a little extraordinary that, through all the transactions relative to the union, the Tories violently opposed it; for they considered the Scotch, in a body, as Whigs, and supposed that their interest would become more powerful by this association. But never were men more agreeably disappointed than the Tories were in this particular. The majority of the Scotch nation, which was entirely against uniting with England, were so much dissatisfied with this measure, that they immediately joined in opposing the ministry, by

482. What were the ecclesiastical stipulations in favour of Scotland? What of England?



whom they were thus compelled to unite. The tories had for some time become the majority in the kingdom, but found themselves opposed by a powerful coalition at court. The duchess of Marlborough had long been in possession of the queen's confidence and favour, and turned the easiness of her mistress's temper to her own advantage, as well as that of her party. The duke of Marlborough, her husband, was at the head of the army that was devoted to him. Lord Godolphin, his son-in-law, was at the head of the treasury, which he managed so as entirely to co-operate with the ambition of the duke. But an unexpected alteration in the queen's affections was going to take place, which was entirely owing to their own mismanagement. Among the number of those whom the duchess had introduced to the queen, to contribute to her private amusement, was one Mrs. Masham, her own kinswoman, whom she had raised from indigence and obscurity. The duchess having gained the ascendant over the queen, became petulant and insolent, and relaxed in those arts by which she had risen. Mrs. Masham, who had her fortune to make, was more humble and assiduous; she flattered the foibles of the queen, and assented to her prepossessions and prejudices. She soon saw the queen's inclination to the tory set of opinions, their divine right and passive obedience; and instead of attempting to thwart her as the duchess had done, she joined in with her partiality, and insinuated to the queen that the tories were by far the majority of the people. That they were displeased with a ministry that attempted to rule their sovereign, and had lavished the treasures of the nation on wars, which they chose to carry on in order to continue in power. But though this intriguing woman seemed to act from herself alone, she was in fact the tool of secretary Harley, afterwards lord Oxford. His aim was to unite the tory interest under his own shelter, and to expel the whigs from the advantages which they had so long enjoyed under government. In his career of ambition, he chose for his coadjutor Henry St. John, afterwards the famous lord Bolingbroke, a man of great eloquence and greater ambition, enterprising, restless, active, and haughty, with some wit and little principle. To this junto was added Sir Simon Harcourt, a lawyer, a man of great abilities. These uniting, diffused assurances among their partisans, that the queen would no longer bear the tyranny of a whig ministry; she had ever

483. Whom did the duchess of Marlborough introduce to the queen, and for what purpose? Relate her conduct. Of whom was she the tool? What was the aim of Harley? Whom did he choose for his coadjutor, and what was his character? Who was added to this junto?



been, they said, a friend in her heart to the tory and high-church party, by which appellation this faction now chose to be distinguished; and to convince them of the truth of their assertions, the queen herself shortly after bestowed two bishopricks on clergymen who had openly condemned the revolution. It was now perceived that the people themselves began to be weary of the whig ministry, whom they formerly caressed. To them they imputed the burthens under which they groaned, burthens which they had been hitherto animated to bear by the pomp of triumph, but the load of which they felt in a pause of success. The ministry were for a long time ignorant of these secret intrigues of their coadjutor Harley, and secure in their own strength, they continued to tease the queen with remonstrances against her conduct, and upbraided her with ingratitude for those services which had secured her glory. The duchess of Marlborough perceived, when it was too late, that she was supplanted by her insidious rival; and her husband found no other means of re-establishing his credit, but by openly opposing Oxford, whom he could not otherwise displace. He accordingly wrote to the queen, that he and his son-in-law, lord Godolphin, could serve her no longer, should the present secretary be continued in his place. They even went so far as to retire from court, and the queen saw herself in danger of being deserted by her whole ministry. A sullen silence prevailed through the cabinet council; and some were even heard to say, that no deliberations could be pursued in the absence of the duke and the lord treasurer. The queen now, for the first time, perceived the power which these two ministers had assumed over her councils. She found that they were willing to place and displace the servants of the crown at pleasure; and that nothing was left to her, but to approve such measures as they thought fit to press upon her choice. She secretly, therefore, resolved to remove a ministry that was thus grown odious to her, but in the present exigence was obliged to give way to their demands. This violent measure, which seemed at first favourable to the whig ministry, laid the foundation of its ruin."

484. *Dr. Sacheverel impeached, 1710.*—"The tory Harley soon threw off the mask of friendship, and took more vigorous measures for the prosecution of his designs. In him the queen reposed all her trust, though he had now no visible concern in administration. The first triumph of the tories,

483. Why were the people weary of the whig ministry? What title did Harley afterwards obtain? Which of the rival parties lost the confidence of the queen?



in which the queen discovered a public partiality in their favour, was seen in a transaction of no great importance in itself, but from the consequences it produced. The parties of the nation were eager to engage, and they wanted but the watchword to begin. This was given by Dr. Henry Sacheverel, an obscure divine, neither of abilities, property, nor power, but whom accident brought forward on this occasion. He was bred at Oxford, of narrow intellects, and an overheated imagination. He had acquired some popularity among those who had distinguished themselves by the name of high-churchmen, and had taken all occasions to vent his animosity against the dissenters. At the summer assizes at Derby, he held forth in that strain before the judges. In St. Paul's cathedral, on the 5th of November, 1709, he defended the doctrine of non-resistance, inveighed against the toleration of dissenters, declared the church was dangerously attacked by its enemies, and slightly defended by its false friends. He sounded the trumpet for the zealous, and exhorted the people to put on the whole armour of God. Sir Samuel Gerrard, lord mayor, countenanced this harangue, which, though very weak both in the matter and style, was published under his protection, and extolled by the tories, and circulated all over the nation. These sermons owed all their celebrity to the complexion of the times. Mr. Dolben, son to the archbishop of York, laid a complaint before the house of commons against them, and thus gave force to what would have soon been forgotten. The most violent paragraphs were read, and the sermons voted scandalous and seditious libels. Sacheverel was brought to the bar of the house, and he, far from disowning the writing of them, gloried in what he had done. It was thereon resolved to impeach him of high crimes and misdemeanors, at the bar of the house of lords. The eyes of the whole kingdom were turned upon this very extraordinary trial, which lasted three weeks, and excluded all other public business for the time. The queen herself was every day present as a private spectator, while vast multitudes attended the culprit each day as he went to Westminster-hall, shouting as he passed, or silently praying for his success. While the trial continued, nothing could exceed the violence and outrage of the populace. They surrounded

484. Who was Henry Sacheverel, and what was his character? Against whom did he vent his animosity? By whom was he countenanced? What doctrines did he inculcate in his sermons, and what gave them popularity? Who arraigned him before the house of lords? How long did his trial last?



the queen's sedan, exclaiming, 'God bless your majesty and the church; we hope your majesty is for Dr. Sacheverel. They destroyed several meeting-houses, plundered the dwellings of many eminent dissenters, and even proposed to attack the bank. The queen, in compliance with the request of the commons, published a proclamation for suppressing the tumults; and several persons being apprehended, two were tried for high treason, but neither suffered. Sacheverel's defence was conducted with great art and eloquence, by Sir Simon Harcourt, bishop Atterbury, and others. He afterwards recited a speech himself, which, from the difference found between it and his sermons, seems evidently the work of another. In this he solemnly justified his intentions towards the queen and her government. He spoke in the most respectful terms of the revolution, and the protestant succession. He maintained the doctrine of non-resistance as a tenet of the church, in which he was brought up; and, in a pathetic conclusion, endeavoured to excite the pity of his audience. At last, after much obstinate dispute and virulent altercation, Sacheverel was found guilty by a majority of seventeen voices; but no less than four-and-thirty peers entered a protest against this decision (March 20, 1710). He was prohibited from preaching for three years; and his two sermons were ordered to be burnt by the hand of the common hangman, in presence of the lord mayor and the two sheriffs. The lenity of this sentence, which was in a great measure owing to the dread of popular resentment, was considered by the tories as a triumph. They declared their joy in bonfires and illuminations, and openly avowed their rage against his persecutors. Soon after he was presented to a benefice in North Wales, where he went with all the pomp and magnificence of a sovereign prince. In his progress he was sumptuously entertained by the university of Oxford, and many noblemen in his way, who, while they worshipped him as the idol of their faction, could not help despising the object of their adoration. The church, and doctor Sacheverel, was the universal cry, and a spirit of religious enthusiasm spread throughout the nation."

485. *New Parliament—The Whigs dismissed—Harley's Tory Ministry, 1710.*—"Such was the complexion of the times when the queen thought proper on the 5th of April to prorogue the parliament with a speech, in which she especially re-

484. What outrages were committed by the populace? What was his sentence? How many peers protested against it? In what light was it considered by the tories?



ferred to the trial of Sacheverel, to the tender concern she had for the church, and to her regret that the church should be considered in danger under her administration. Being a friend to the tories herself, the queen soon after dissolved the parliament, in order to give the people an opportunity of indulging themselves in choosing representatives to her mind. In fact, very few were returned but such as had distinguished themselves by their zeal against the whig administration. Meanwhile, the campaign in Flanders was conducted with the most brilliant success. The duke of Marlborough had every motive to continue the war, as it gratified not only his ambition but his avarice; a passion that obscured his shining abilities. He so strenuously opposed all overtures for peace, that the king of France resolved to solicit a conference. He employed one Perkum, resident of the duke of Holstein at the Hague, to negotiate upon this subject, and he ventured also to solicit the duke himself in private. A conference was at length begun at Gertruydenberg, under the influence of Marlborough, Eugene, and Zinzendorf, who were all three, from private motives, entirely averse to the treaty. Upon this occasion the French ministers were subjected to every species of mortification. Spies were placed upon all their conduct. Their master was insulted, and their letters were opened; till, at last, Louis resolved to hazard another campaign. It was only by insensible degrees that the queen seemed to acquire courage enough to second her inclinations, and depose a ministry that had so long been disagreeable to her. Harley, however, who still shared her confidence, did not fail to inculcate the popularity, the justice, and the security of such a measure; and, in consequence of his advice, she began the changes, by transferring the post of lord-chamberlain from the duke of Kent to the duke of Shrewsbury, who had lately voted with the tories, and soon after the earls of Godolphin and Sunderland, the one prime minister and lord treasurer, the other secretary of state, and both sons-in-law to the duke of Marlborough, were displaced, and Mr. Harley and the earl of Dartmouth put in their room. Finding that she was rather applauded than condemned for this resolute proceeding, she dismissed all the other whig ministers." The new ministry was composed of Robert Harley, premier and lord treasurer; Harcourt, lord chancellor; earl of Dart-

485. Which party prevailed in the new parliament? How was the campaign conducted in Flanders? Who then was desirous of peace? Where, and under whose influence, did the conference begin? What changes did the queen effect in the ministry?



mouth and Henry St. John, secretaries of state; earl of Rochester, president of the council; duke of Buckingham, lord steward; George Grenville, secretary of war; and the duke of Ormond, lord-lieutenant of Ireland. "The duke of Marlborough was for the present continued in command of the army in the field, but he justly considered himself as a ruin, entirely undermined and just ready to fall."

486. *Intrigues against Marlborough, 1710-11.*—"But the triumph was not yet complete, until the parliament was brought to confirm and approve the queen's choice. When the new parliament met on the 25th of November, the queen in her speech recommended the prosecution of the war, with vigour. The parliament were ardent in their expressions of zeal and unanimity. They exhorted her to discountenance all such principles and measures as had lately threatened her royal crown and dignity. This was but an opening to what soon after followed. The duke of Marlborough, who, but a few months before, had been so highly extolled and caressed by the representatives of the people, was now become the object of their hatred and reproach. His avarice was justly upbraided; his protracting the war was said to arise from that motive. Instances were everywhere given of his fraud and extortion. These might be true; but party had no moderation, and even his courage and conduct were called in question. To mortify the duke still more, the thanks of the house of commons were voted to the earl of Peterborough for his abortive services in Spain, when they were refused to the duke for his most effective operations in Flanders; and the minister, Harley, who delivered them to Peterborough, took occasion to drop some reflections against the mercenary disposition of his rival." The queen still seemed desirous to have Marlborough live upon good terms with her new ministry, but this was impracticable; and it was expected that he would lay down his commission. He did not do this, but he carried the golden key, the ensign of the duchess of Marlborough's offices (of Groom of the Stole, First lady of the Bed-chamber, and Privy-purse) to the queen, and resigned all her employments on the 9th of January, 1711. With the same firmness and composure he consulted the necessary measures for the next campaign, and showed no outward concern, at least for himself. This semblance of a good understanding being thereby kept up between the duke and the new ministry, the duke went over to the Hague to prepare for the next campaign, which at the same time he knew

486. What did the queen recommend in her speech to parliament? How did parliament mortify the duke of Marlborough?



would be his last. He exerted himself in an uncommon manner, and it was attended with the usual success. There was in this campaign a continued trial of skill between the duke of Marlborough and marshal Villars; and, notwithstanding the great talents of the latter, he was completely foiled, and a way opened by the capture of Bouchain, into the very bowels of France. "Still the queen and the ministers were determined to put an end to the war, at any rate, as it had involved the nation in debt almost to bankruptcy; and as it promised, instead of humbling the enemy, only to become habitual to the constitution. It therefore became necessary to remove the duke of Marlborough from his command-in-chief, to prevent his endeavouring to traverse all their negotiations. But here again a difficulty arose: this step could not be taken without giving offence to the Dutch, who placed entire confidence in him; the ministers were, therefore, obliged to wait for some convenient occasion. Upon his return from this campaign, the duke was accused of having taken a bribe of 6000*l.* a year from a Jew who contracted to supply the army with bread; and the queen thereon thought proper to dismiss him from all his employments (Dec. 30, 1711). This was the pretext made use of, though his fall had been predetermined; and though his receiving such a bribe was not the real cause of his removal, yet candour must confess that it ought to have been so." Among other practices, the duke was charged with having appropriated above 500,000*l.* of the public money, of which he took 63,000*l.* from the army contractors, and the rest by keeping back  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. out of the pay of the foreign troops in the service of England. The duke and his friends pleaded the established usage respecting 'perquisites,' and the queen's warrant. The question is doubtful; but of his rapacity and meanness on every occasion where he had pretence of right, there can be no doubt. From this time the conqueror of Blenheim was exposed to a most painful persecution. On the one hand, he was attacked by the clamours of the populace, and by the hireling writers of the ministry; and on the other, a prosecution was commenced against him by the attorney-general, for appropriation of the public money; and the workmen employed in building Blenheim-house, though set at work by the crown, were encouraged to sue his Grace for the money that was due to them. These uneasinesses, joined to his grief for the death of his

486. Why did the new ministry resolve to put an end to the war? Of what was Marlborough accused, and what was the consequence of that charge?



son-in-law, the earl of Godolphin, inclined him to gratify his enemies by a voluntary exile. Accordingly he embarked, together with his duchess, at Dover, upon the 14th of November, 1712; and landing at Ostend, went from thence to Antwerp, and so on to Aix-la-Chapelle, being everywhere received with the honours due to his high rank and merit.

487. *Relative Strength of the Tories and Whigs—Peace of Utrecht.*—When the parliament met in December, 1711, the queen stated in her speech, that notwithstanding the arts of those who delight in war, both place and time were appointed for opening the treaty of general peace. Having cast this ungracious reflection on Marlborough, who was present, she retired from the throne, and remained privately to hear the debate. The duke defended himself in a strain which might be called touching and sincere, if he had not before given so many proofs of duplicity. The amendment on the address was carried in the lords against the ministers on a division, of 62 to 54; and rejected in the commons by 232 to 106. These divisions may be taken as the measure of strength of the tories and of the whigs. Therefore, to give the ministers a majority in the lords, twelve peers were created in one day. This greatly increased the virulence of the whigs. The proceedings in both houses now became a selfish struggle of party interests and passions, with a reckless disregard of the national interests. For more than a year the whigs used every effort, at home and abroad, to thwart the negotiations for peace, which had been opened at Utrecht. “The conferences began under the conduct of Robinson, bishop of Bristol, lord privy seal, and the earl of Strafford, on the side of the English; of Buys and Vanderdussen on the part of the Dutch; and of the mareschal d’Uxelles, the cardinal Polignac, and Mr. Menager, in behalf of France. The ministers of the emperor and Savoy assisted, and the other allies sent also plenipotentiaries, though with the utmost reluctance. As England and France were the only two powers that were seriously inclined to peace, it may be supposed that all the other deputies met rather to start new difficulties, and widen the breach, than to quiet the dissensions of Europe. On finding this to be the case, the English ministers set on foot a private negotiation with France. They

487. What did the queen state on opening the parliament? How did Marlborough defend himself? What may be taken as the relative strength of the tories and whigs in this parliament? Where did the conference respecting the treaty of peace begin, and by whom was it conducted? Which of the powers were most inclined to peace? Who were the plenipotentiaries on the part of Britain and of France?



stipulated certain advantages for the subjects of Great Britain, and resolved to enter into such mutual confidence with the French as would anticipate all clandestine transactions to the prejudice of the coalition. Secretary St. John, now lord viscount Bolingbroke, was sent to the court of Versailles to remove all obstructions to the separate treaty, which was soon after agreed on by the plenipotentiaries on either side, and accepted by the queen," whereon a proclamation was issued, declaring a suspension of arms between Great Britain and France (August 12, 1712). The treaty, however, was not signed at Utrecht until the 30th of April, nor the ratifications exchanged until the 5th of May, 1713, when peace was proclaimed, to the inexpressible joy of the majority of the nation.

488. *Stipulations of the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.*—"The articles of this famous treaty were longer canvassed, and more warmly debated, than those of any other treaty read of in history. The number of different interests concerned, and the great enmity and jealousy subsisting between all, made it impossible that all could be satisfied; and, indeed, there seemed no other method of obtaining peace but that which was taken—for England and France, the two principal powers concerned, to make their own articles, and to leave the rest for a subject of future discussion. The principal stipulations agreed upon by England and France were: that the French king should acknowledge the protestant succession, and remove the pretender (James Edward Stuart) out of his dominions; that Philip, now acknowledged king of Spain, should renounce all right to the crown of France—the union of two such powerful kingdoms being thought dangerous to the liberties of Europe. It was agreed that the duke of Berry, Philip's brother, and after him in succession, should also renounce his right to the crown of Spain, in case he became king of France. It was stipulated, that the duke of Savoy should possess the island of Sicily, with the title of king, together with Fenestrelles, and other places on the Continent; which increase of dominion was in some measure made out of the spoils of the French monarchy. The Dutch had that barrier granted them which they so long sought after; and if the crown of France was deprived of some dominions to enrich the duke of Savoy, on the other hand, the house of Austria was taxed to supply the wants of the Hollanders, who were put in possession of the strongest towns in Flanders. With regard to England, its glory and its interest

488. Recapitulate the stipulations of the treaty.



were secured. The fortifications of Dunkirk, an harbour that might be dangerous to their trade in time of war, were ordered to be demolished, and its port destroyed. Spain gave up all right to Gibraltar, and the island of Minorca. France resigned her pretensions to Hudson's Bay, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland; but they were left in possession of Cape Breton, and the liberty of drying their fish upon the shore. Among these articles, glorious to the English nation, their setting free the French protestants, confined in the prisons and galleys for their religion, was not the least meritorious. For the emperor it was stipulated, that he should possess the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, and the Netherlands. The king of Prussia was to have Upper Guelder; and a time was fixed for the emperor's acceding to these articles, as he had for some time obstinately refused to assist at the negotiation. Thus Europe seemed to be formed into one great republic, the different members of which were cantoned out to different governors, and the ambition of any one State amenable to the tribunal of all. Thus it appears that the English ministry did justice to all the world; but their country denied that justice to them." This treaty, one of the principal landmarks of modern history, was signed at Utrecht in March, 1713, by the plenipotentiaries of England and France, and by all the other belligerent powers, except the emperor and the king of Spain. The French thereafter turned their strength against Germany, where they were everywhere successful. This forced the emperor Charles VI. to conclude a peace in the following year at Rastadt, on less favourable terms than had been offered to him (1714).

489. *Party Dissensions — Death of Queen Anne.*—"The English being in this manner freed from their foreign enemies, had now full leisure to indulge their domestic dissensions. The tories and the whigs never contended with greater animosity, nor greater injustice, against each other. No merit could be allowed in those of the opposite faction, and no knavery seen in their own. Whether it was at this time the wish of the ministers to alter the succession of the crown from the house of Hanover to the pretender, cannot now be clearly made out; but true it is that the whigs believed it as certain, and the tories but faintly denied the charge. The suspicions of the whigs became every day stronger, particularly when they saw a total removal of their party from all places of trust and confidence throughout the kingdom, and their employments bestowed on professed

488. What possessions were acquired by England?



tories, supposed to be maintainers of an unbroken hereditary succession. But while the whigs were attacking the tory ministers from without, these were in much greater danger from their own internal dissensions. Harley (lord Oxford) and St. John (lord Bolingbroke), though they had started with the same principles and designs, yet, having vanquished other opposers, now began to turn their strength against each other. Both began to form separate interests, and to adopt different principles. Oxford's plan was the more moderate, Bolingbroke's the more vigorous, but the more secure. Oxford, it was thought, was entirely for the Hanover succession; Bolingbroke had some hopes of bringing in the pretender. But though they hated each other most sincerely, yet they were for a while kept together by the good offices of their friends and adherents. It was mortifying to the tories, who had the melancholy prospect of seeing the citadel of their hopes, while openly besieged from without, secretly undermining within; but it was more particularly displeasing to the queen, who daily saw her favourite ministry declining, while her own health kept pace with their contentions. Her constitution was now quite broken. One fit of sickness succeeded another: and what completed the ruin of her health was the anxiety of her mind. These dissensions had such an effect upon her spirits and constitution, that she declared she could not outlive it, and immediately sunk into a state of lethargic insensibility, and died on the third day after, in the fiftieth year of her age and thirteenth of her reign (August 1, 1714). She left no children, though she had borne four daughters and two sons. In her ended the line of the Stuarts; a family whose misfortunes and misconducts are not to be paralleled in history—a family who, less than men themselves, seemed to expect from their followers more than manhood in their defence; a family that never rewarded their friends, and never avenged them of their enemies."

490. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). Hallam states that, "No clear understanding can be acquired of the political history of England without distinguishing, with some accuracy of definition, the two great parties of whig and tory." They were undoubtedly originally employed as short nicknames for those who desired to make the crown dependent upon the parliament, and those who sought to continue the supreme power in the sovereign.

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489. Which of the queen's ministers now began to oppose each other? In what respect did Oxford and Bolingbroke differ? What was the effect of their dissension? What ruined the health of the queen? What put an end to her life? In what year of her age and reign did she die?



There is no evidence up to the death of Anne, that either party desired to increase the civil or religious liberties of the commonalty. The chiefs of both parties, indeed the whole body—the landowners—which constituted the upper house and returned the majority of the lower, were agreed in retaining political power within themselves. In general the tories were the old landholders and the whigs the new—that is, the possessors of the church and state lands alienated since the time of Henry VIII. The tories repudiated all innovation in government and religion upon principle, while the whigs only descanted on liberty and the rights of mankind when popular support was needed against the tories. A jealousy of new men, of the mercantile interest, and of the commonalty, is a never-failing test, equally of tories and whigs. The Parliamentary Qualification act, requiring the members for counties and boroughs to possess, respectively, real estates in land of £600 and £300 a year, although carried by the tory ministry of 1711, has never been repealed by the whigs.

(2). The average national expenditure during the reign of Anne was about ten millions, the one half being raised by taxes and the other by loans. On the 31st of December, 1714, the national debt amounted to £54,145,363, and the annual interest payable thereon to £3,351,358, or about twice the expenditure during the profligate and extravagant reign of Charles II.

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## GEORGE I.

Began to reign August 1st, 1714;—died June 11th, 1727.

491. *The Brunswick Succession unopposed.*—"The Jacobites had long been flattered with the hopes of seeing the direct succession restored. Ungrounded hopes, and impracticable schemes, seem to have been the only portion bequeathed to that party. They now found all their expectations blasted by the premature death of the queen. The diligence and activity of the privy-council, in which the Hanoverian interest prevailed, the general ridicule which attended their inconsistent conduct, all served to complete their confusion. Upon recollection, they saw nothing so eligible in the present crisis as silence and submission; they hoped much from the assistance of France, and still more from the popularity and councils of the pretender, as the son of James II. was now called. This unfortunate man seemed to possess all the qualities of his father; his pride, his want of perseverance, and his attachment to the catholic religion. He was but a poor leader, therefore, to conduct so desperate a cause; and

491. Who were disappointed by the peaceful accession of George I.? Who were the Jacobites? What is said of the pretender?



in fact, all the sensible part of the kingdom had forsaken it as irretrievable. No tumult appeared, no commotion arose, and this gave a strong proof that no rational measures were ever taken to obstruct the Brunswick succession."

492. *The Civil List—Halifax's Whig Ministry—Character of George I.*—The queen had no sooner resigned her last breath than the privy-council assembled and constituted a regency. Proclamation was then made, pursuant to the act of Settlement, of George the First, son of Ernest Augustus, first elector of Brunswick, and the princess Sophia, granddaughter of James I. The earl of Dorset was next sent to Hanover, to intimate his accession to the crown, and to attend him on his journey to England. On the 5th of August the parliament met under the regency, congratulated the new king, took various measures to secure his succession, among others that of offering a reward of 100,000*l.* for the head of the pretender if he should attempt a landing, and settled on the king a civil list of 700,000*l.* a year. On the 25th, the parliament was prorogued; after which the king set out from Hanover, lingered on his way in Holland, and only arrived at Greenwich on the morning of the 18th of September, "where he was received by the duke of Northumberland, captain of the life-guard, and the lords of the regency. From the landing-place he walked to the royal residence in the park, accompanied by a great number of the nobility, and other persons of distinction, who expected to make their court in this reign, in consequence of their turbulence and opposition to the last. When he retired to his bed-chamber, he then sent for such of the nobility as had distinguished themselves by their zeal for his succession. But the duke of Ormond, the lord chancellor, and the lord treasurer, found themselves excluded. Harley, earl of Oxford, the next morning, presented himself with an air of confidence, supposing that his rupture with Bolingbroke would compensate for his former conduct. But he had the mortification to remain a considerable time unnoticed among the crowd; and then was permitted to kiss the king's hand, without being honoured with any circumstance of peculiar respect. To mortify him still more, the king expressed the most uncommon regard for the duke of Marlborough." The new sovereign gave his confidence exclusively and ostentatiously to the whigs. He appointed lord Halifax first commissioner of the treasury; Stanhope and Townsend, secretaries of state; Marlborough,

492. Of whom was George I. the son? What civil list was granted to him? How did the king act on landing at Greenwich? To whom did he give his confidence? Who were appointed ministers?



commander-in-chief; and Walpole, paymaster of the forces. After the appointment of the king's court and government were completed, his coronation took place on the 20th of October, 1728. "The king's mature age, he being now fifty-four years old, his political and military reputation, his numerous alliances, the general tranquillity of Europe, all contributed to establish his interests, and to promise him a peaceable and happy reign. His abilities, though not shining, were solid: he was of a very different disposition from the Stuart family, whom he succeeded. These were known, to a proverb, for leaving their friends in extremity. George, on the contrary, soon after his arrival in England, was heard to say, 'My maxim is, never to abandon my friends; to do justice to all the world; and to fear no man.' To these qualifications of resolution and perseverance, he joined great application to business. However, one fault with respect to England remained behind; he studied the interest of those subjects he had left, more than those he came to govern."

493. *New Parliament—The Tory Ministers Impeached, 1715.*—"Parliament having been dissolved, another was called by a very extraordinary proclamation (Jan. 15). In this the king entreated that his subjects would elect such persons in particular, as had expressed a firm attachment to the protestant succession when it was in danger. It was thus that this monarch was tutored by the faction around him, to look with an evil eye on subjects that never opposed the succession; subjects that detested a popish monarch, and whose only fault was the desire of being governed rather by the authority of a king, than a junto of their fellow-subjects who assumed his power. In the election of this important parliament, uncommon vigour was exerted on both sides; but by dint of the monied interest that prevailed in corporations, and the activity of the ministry, which will always have weight, a great majority of whigs was returned both in England and Scotland. When the new parliament met on the 17th of March, the king took no care to conceal his partialities for the whigs. Accordingly, nothing was expected but the most violent measures against the late ministry, nor were the public expectations disappointed. The

492. What promised George I. a happy reign? What was the character of the Stuart family? What was a maxim of George I.? What qualifications did he possess? Did he study equally the interests of the Hanoverians and Britons?

493. When did the first parliament meet, and who were predominant? What was expected, and what happened?



king gave the house of commons to understand that the branches of the revenue appointed for the support of the civil government were not sufficient for that purpose. He warned them that the pretender boasted of the assistance he expected in England to repair his former disappointments. He intimated also, that he expected their assistance in punishing such as endeavoured to deprive him of that blessing he most valued—the affection of his people. As the houses were predisposed to violent measures, this served to give them encouragement; and they out-went even the most sanguine expectations of the most vindictive ministry. One of the new ministers (secretary Stanhope) openly asserted, that notwithstanding the endeavours which had been used by the late ministry to prevent a discovery of their hidden transactions, by conveying away several papers from the secretary's office, yet there was still sufficient evidence left to prove their corruptions and treasons. The house seemed very well inclined to enter into any impeachment; and there was no restraint to the violence of their measures, but the voice of a multitude without doors, intimidated by the resolution of the present rulers. It was the artifice, during this and the succeeding reign, to stigmatise all those who testified their discontent against government, as papists and Jacobites. All who ventured to speak against the violence of their measures were reproached as designing to bring in the pretender; and most people were consequently afraid to murmur, since discontent was so near akin to treason. In this ferment, the former ministry could expect neither justice nor mercy. A part of them kept away from business, Bolingbroke had hitherto appeared and spoke in the house as usual. However, his fears now prevailed over his desire to vindicate his character; finding an impeachment was likely to be made, he withdrew to the Continent, leaving a letter, in which he declared that if there had been any hopes of a fair and open trial he would not have declined it. A committee was soon after appointed, consisting of 20 persons, to inspect all the papers relative to the late negotiation for peace; and to pick out such of them as might serve as subjects of accusation against the late ministry. After some time spent in this disquisition, the chairman, Mr. Robert Walpole, read the report of the committee, in which a number of charges were drawn out against the queen's late

493. What were the proceedings of the two houses of parliament? By what names were the discontents now branded? Of whom were they considered the friends? For what purpose was a committee appointed?



ministers; and then impeached lord Bolingbroke of high treason (June, 1728). This struck some of the members with amazement, as there was nothing in the report that any way amounted to treason; but they were still more astonished, when lord Coningsby, rising up, was heard to say, 'The worthy chairman has impeached the hand, but I impeach the head; he has impeached the scholar, and I the master. I impeach Robert Harley, earl of Oxford, of high treason, and other crimes and misdemeanors.' Next day, lord Coningsby, attended by the whig members, impeached him at the bar of the house of lords; demanding, at the same time, that he might lose his seat, and be committed to custody, which was ordered, although the celebrated Dr. Mead declared that if the earl should be sent to the Tower his life would be in danger." The duke of Ormond and lord Strafford were also impeached. Ormond fled to France; and the charge against Strafford was afterwards abandoned. Oxford lay in the Tower for two years, and then obtained his liberty.

494. *Rebellion in Scotland—Battle of Sheriffmuir, 1715.*—“While these vindictive proceedings were exciting the indignation of the English people, the flames of rebellion were actually kindled in Scotland, where, to their other grievances, they joined that of the union, which they were taught to consider as an oppression. The earl of Mar, assembling 300 of his own vassals in the highlands, proclaimed the pretender at Castletown, and set up his standard at a place called Braemaer, assuming the title of lieutenant-general of his majesty's forces. To second these attempts, two vessels arrived in Scotland from France, with arms, ammunition, and a number of officers, together with assurances to the earl, that the pretender himself would shortly come over to head his own forces. The earl, in consequence of this promise, soon found himself at the head of 10,000 men, well armed and provided. He then secured the pass of Tay at Perth, where his headquarters were established, and made himself master of the whole fruitful province of Fife. He next marched from Perth to cross the Forth at Stirling-bridge, where he was informed of the duke of Argyll's intention to give him battle

493. Of what was lord Bolingbroke accused? Relate the speech of lord Coningsby. How was lord Oxford treated next day? What was the declaration of Dr. Mead?

494. What kindled the flames of rebellion in Scotland? Who headed the rebels? What was the number of his vassals? What title did he assume? What number of ships arrived from France, and what did they contain? Who opposed the earl of Mar?



in the neighbourhood of Dumblaine, though his forces did not amount to half the number of the enemy." On the morning of the 13th of November, both armies were in motion. The duke of Argyll advanced to a rising ground to take a survey of the rebel army, which he could easily discern in full march towards him, but another hill on his left intercepted his view, so that it was impossible for him to guess at the true extent of their line, or how far they outflanked him. His army, amounting to 3500 men, of which 1200 were dragoons, was drawn up on the heights above Dumblaine, to the north-east of that place, which lay about a mile and a half from his left, and a wet boggy mire or morass called Sheriffmuir on his right. The earl of Mar, who knew that his numbers greatly exceeded the duke's, extended his lines as far as possible, with a design to take his opponent in flank, and marched up to him in this disposition. Argyll, who till now supposed that the morass of Sheriffmuir was impassable, saw that the two or three nights' frost had made it capable of bearing, and that the rebels were coming down the moor with an intent to flank him, having their right much extended beyond the point of his left. Hearing their bagpipes at a great distance, he found himself obliged to alter the disposition of his front to prevent his being surrounded. The rebels began the attack by a general discharge of firearms, and received the volley of the royal troops without shrinking; but at the first fire the captain of Clanronald, who led them on, was killed, which had like to have struck a damp upon them, but Glen-gary, starting from the lines, waved his bonnet, and cried 'Revenge!' which so animated the men, that they followed him like furies up to the muzzles of the muskets, pushed aside the bayonets with their targets, and with their broad swords spread death and terror wherever they came. A total rout of that wing of the royal army ensued, and general Witham, with some horse, riding full gallop to Stirling, gave out there that all was lost; but upon the right wing of the royal army the duke of Argyll commanded in person, and he charged with such intrepidity, that, although the rebels made a gallant and obstinate resistance, they were obliged to give way. The duke pursued them over the river Allan, and though the distance is not above two miles, yet in that space they attempted to rally nearly a dozen times. The duke now returned to the field, and took possession of some enclosures and mud walls to serve for a breast-work in the event of a

494. Who had the superiority in point of numbers? How was that superiority more than compensated? Where did they come to an engagement?



fresh attack. In this posture both parties stood at gaze, but neither caring to engage; when towards evening the duke drew off towards Dumblaine, and the enemy towards Ardoch, without molesting one another (Nov. 13, 1715). "Though the possession of the field was kept by neither, yet certainly all the honour and all the advantages of the day belonged to the duke of Argyll. It was sufficient for him to have interrupted the progress of the enemy, for, in their circumstances, delay was defeat. The earl of Mar soon found his disappointments and his losses increase. The castle of Inverness, of which he was in possession, was delivered up to the king by lord Lovat, who had hitherto professed to act in the interest of the pretender. The marquis of Tullibardine forsook the earl, in order to defend his own part of the country; and many of the clans, seeing no likelihood of coming soon to a second engagement, returned quietly home; for an irregular army is much easier led to battle, than induced to bear the fatigues of a campaign."

495. *The Pretender in Scotland—Rebellion suppressed—Executions.*—"The pretender might by this time have been convinced of the vanity of his expectations, in supposing that the whole country would rise up in his cause. His affairs were actually desperate, yet, with the usual infatuation of the Stuart family, he resolved to hazard his person among his friends in Scotland, at a time when such a measure was too late for success. Passing, therefore, through France in disguise, and embarking in a small vessel at Dunkirk, he landed at Peterhead, after a voyage of a few days, with only six gentlemen in his train (Dec. 25, 1715). He passed unknown through Aberdeen to Fetteresso, where he was met by the earl of Mar, and about thirty noblemen and gentlemen of the first quality. There he was solemnly proclaimed. His declaration, dated at Commercy, was printed and dispersed. He went from thence to Dundee, where he made a public entry, and in two days more he arrived at Scone, where he intended to have the ceremony of his coronation performed. He ordered thanksgivings to be made for his safe arrival; he enjoined the ministers to pray for him in their churches; and, without the smallest share of power, went through the ceremonies of royalty, which threw an air of ridicule on all his conduct. Having thus spent some time in unimportant parade, he resolved to abandon the enterprise with the same

494. Which general claimed the victory? Why did the marquis of Tullibardine forsake the earl of Mar?

495. When and where did the pretender land in Scotland? What was his conduct? Why did he abandon his enterprise?



levity with which it was undertaken. Having made a speech to his grand council, he informed them of his want of money, arms, and ammunition, for undertaking a campaign, and therefore deplored that he was compelled to leave them. He once more embarked on board a small French ship that lay in the harbour of Montrose, accompanied with several lords, his adherents, and in five days arrived at Gravelines." General Gordon, who was left commander-in-chief of the forces, with the assistance of the earl mareschal, proceeded at their head to Aberdeen, where he secured three vessels to sail northward, which took on board such persons as intended to make their escape to the Continent. He then continued his march through the highlands, and quietly dismissed his forces as he went forward. This retreat was made with such expedition, that the duke of Argyll, with all his activity, could never overtake his rear, which consisted of a thousand horse. After suppressing the rebellion, Argyll returned to London, and was most graciously received by his majesty; but in a few months, to the surprise of all mankind, he was turned out of all his places. The duke's patriotic conduct in parliament was the cause of this political disgrace. He joined with those humane persons who in vain recommended the ministry to be merciful to the delinquents after the rebellion was terminated.

496. *Jacobite Insurrection in England, 1715.*—"The insurrection in England was still more unsuccessful. From the time the pretender had undertaken this wild project at Paris, in which the duke of Ormond and lord Bolingbroke were engaged, lord Stair, the English ambassador there, had penetrated all his designs, and sent faithful accounts of all his measures, and all his adherents, to the ministry at home. Upon the first rumour, therefore, of an insurrection, the king obtained leave from the lower house to seize Sir William Wyndham, Sir John Packington, Harvey Combe, and others. The lords Lansdown and Duplin were also taken into custody. But all these precautions were not able to stop the insurrection in the western counties, where it was already begun. All the preparations were, however, weak and ill-conducted; every

495. Did the pretender discover either judgment or fortitude in his enterprise? From what port in Scotland did he set sail, and where did he land? How was the duke of Argyll treated by the whig ministry? Why?

496. How was the rebellion prosecuted in England? Who at the court of France were implicated in the project of the pretender? Who discovered their designs and communicated them to the British ministry? What was the consequence of that information? Did the adherents of prince James concert their measures with ability and secrecy?



measure was betrayed to government as soon as projected, and many revolts repressed in the very outset. The university of Oxford was treated with great severity on this occasion. Major-general Pepper, with a strong detachment of dragoons, took possession of the city, and declared that he would shoot those students who presumed to appear without the limits of their respective colleges. The insurrection in the northern counties came to greater maturity. In October, the earl of Derwentwater and general Forster took the field with a body of horse; and being joined by some gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, proclaimed the pretender. The first attempt was to seize upon Newcastle, in which they had many friends; but they found the gates shut against them, and were obliged to retire to Hexham. To oppose these, general Carpenter was detached by government with a body of nine hundred men, and an engagement was hourly expected. The rebels had proceeded, by the way of Kendal and Lancaster, to Preston, of which place they took possession without any resistance. But this was the last stage of their ill-advised incursion; for general Willes, at the head of seven thousand men, came up to the town to attack them, and from his activity there was no escaping. They therefore proposed a capitulation. This, however, Willes refused, alleging, that he would not treat with rebels, and that the only favour they had to expect was to be spared from immediate slaughter. They accordingly laid down their arms, and were put under a strong guard (Nov. 13). The total number of the prisoners was about 15,000; among whom were Forster the general, the earls of Derwentwater and of Nithisdale, the lords Widrington, Wintown, Kenmure, and Nairne, with about 72 English gentlemen, and 138 Scotch officers and gentlemen. A few of the officers were tried for deserting from the royal army, and shot by order of a court-martial. The common men were imprisoned at Chester and Liverpool; the noblemen and considerable officers were sent to London, and led through the streets pinioned and bound together, to intimidate their party."

497. *Vindictive Executions and Transportations, 1716.*—"In this manner ended a rebellion, which nothing but imbecility could project, and nothing but rashness could support. But though the enemy was no more, the fury of the victors did not seem in the least to abate with success. The law was now put in force with all its terrors; and the prisons of

496. What was the declaration of major-general Pepper at Oxford? Relate the progress and extinction of the rebellion in the northern counties of England.

497. How were the rebels treated?



London were crowded with those deluded wretches, whom the ministry seemed resolved not to pardon. The commons, in their address to the crown, declared they would prosecute in the most rigorous manner the authors of the late rebellion. In consequence of which, the earls of Derwentwater, Nithisdale, Carnwath, and Wintown, the lords Widrington, Kenmuir, and Nairne, were impeached, and, upon pleading guilty, all but lord Wintown received sentence of death. No entreaties could soften the ministry to spare these unhappy men. Orders were dispatched for executing the lords Derwentwater, Nithisdale, and Kenmure immediately; the rest were respited to a further time. Nithisdale, however, had the good fortune to escape in woman's clothes, which were brought to him by his mother, the night before he was to have been executed (Feb. 23, 1716). Derwentwater and Kenmure were brought to the scaffold on Tower-hill at the time appointed. Both underwent their sentence with calm intrepidity, pitied by all, and seemingly less moved themselves than those who beheld them. In the beginning of April, commissioners for trying the other rebels met in the court of common pleas, when bills were found against Forster, Mackintosh, and twenty of their confederates. Forster escaped from Newgate, and reached the Continent in safety; the rest pleaded not guilty. Pitts, the keeper of Newgate, being suspected of having connived at Forster's escape, was tried for his life, but acquitted. Yet, notwithstanding this, Mackintosh, and several other prisoners, broke from Newgate, after having mastered the keeper and turnkey, and disarmed the sentinel. The court proceeded to the trial of those that remained: four or five were hanged, drawn, and quartered at Tyburn: 22 were executed at Preston and Manchester; and about 1000 prisoners experienced the king's mercy, if such it might be called, and were transported to North America.\* With these trials terminated the criminal proceedings against the rebels, followed however by a social persecution against all persons suspected of unfriend-

497. What noblemen were brought to trial? How did Nithisdale escape? How did Derwentwater and Kenmure meet their fate? Against whom were bills found by the commissioners for trying the rebels? Who effected their escape from prison? How many suffered at Tyburn? How many were hanged at Preston and Manchester? Of how many did the king spare the lives, and to what country were they transported?

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\* Thirty of these rebels, who were shipped from Liverpool for the West Indies, mastered their guards and the ship's crew, and carried the ship to France, where they sold both ship and cargo (Nov. 1716).



liness to the new whig ministry. It is a melancholy consideration that, in all contentions, we generally see little to applaud on either side. We have seen a weak and imprudent party, endeavouring not only to subvert the government, but the religion of the country. On the other hand, we see them opposed by a party, actuated by pride, avarice, and animosity, concealing a love of power under a mask of freedom; and brandishing the sword of justice to strike a vindictive blow.

498. *The Septennial Act to avoid a new Election.*—"In a constitution so very complicated as that of England, it must necessarily require frequent alteration; for some of its branches may gain strength, while others become weaker. At this period, the orders (the landowners) placed between the king and the people, acquired more than their share of power. The king himself being a foreigner, and ignorant of the laws and constitution of the country, was kept under the control of his ministers, who, by their private connections, governed the parliament. At the same time, the people, awed by the fears of imputed Jacobitism, were afraid to murmur, and were content to give up their freedom for safety." Now that the rebellion was extinguished, the tories on the one hand relied with confidence on the next general election, while the whigs on the other regarded an appeal to the country at such a juncture with undisguised apprehension. In this case, as on all others, persecution had reacted upon its authors, and the martyrs of the unpopular cause made proselytes amongst the people. The whigs knew, or feared, that an election would throw the majority into their opponents, and that, cast out of power, they would be exposed to measures of violence and revenge, similar to those of which they had themselves set so terrible an example. Even if the tories failed in obtaining the upper hand, the tumults of the struggles at the hustings could not be contemplated without the most serious alarm. Whichever way they looked, they had but one alternative—that of prolonging the existence of parliament, in order to prolong their own. For this purpose—and for this purpose alone—basing a perpetual act which should tie up the free-will of posterity, upon a temporary necessity, and changing the permanent constitution of parliament to avert a contingent danger, the whigs resolved upon the introduction of the famous Septennial bill, by which the duration of the existing and all future parliaments was extended from *three* to *seven* years (May, 1716). "This procedure, in any delegated body of people, to increase their own power by extending it, is con-

498. What orders acquired an undue influence at this time? Why did the whig ministers extend the duration of parliament?



trary to the first principles of justice. If it was right to extend their duration to seven years, they might also perpetuate their authority; and thus cut off even the shadow of nomination. This bill, however, passed both houses, and all objections to it were considered as disaffection. The people might murmur at this encroachment, but it was too late for redress."

499. *George I. visits Hanover—Quadruple Alliance—Victory off Passord.*—Domestic concerns being adjusted, the king began to turn his thoughts to his Hanoverian dominions, and resolved upon a voyage to the Continent. He foresaw a storm gathering from Sweden, as Charles XII., the extraordinary monarch of that country, was highly provoked against him for having entered into a confederacy with the Russians and Danes in his absence, and for having purchased the towns of Bremen and Verden from the king of Denmark, which constituted a part of his dominions. George I., therefore, having passed through Holland to Hanover, in order to secure his German dominions, entered into a new treaty with the Dutch and the regent of France; by which they agreed mutually to assist each other in case of an invasion (1716). The king's fears from Sweden were not without foundation. Charles maintained a close correspondence with the disaffected subjects of Great Britain; and a scheme was formed for the landing a considerable body of Swedish forces, with the king at their head, in some part of the island, where it was expected they would be joined by all the malcontents in the kingdom (1717); but the death of the Swedish monarch, who was soon after killed by a cannon-ball at the siege of Fredericshall in Norway, put an end to all disquietude from that quarter (1718). But this was the age of treaties, subsidies, and political combinations. At that time the politicians of the age supposed that such paper chains would be sufficient to

498. Is it consistent with justice that laws should be made to act retrospectively? Has it not appeared, especially since parliamentary government commenced, that all laws calculated to favour the influence of public opinion upon the conduct of government have been disregarded or repealed? \* What was the duration of parliament until 1640? \* (Note § 430). Do you recollect by what means the parliament of 1640 *legally* (?) prolonged its existence for nineteen years? \* What was the practice in the reign of Charles II.? \*

499. By whose assistance was the new insurrection in England expected to be raised? Who was fixed on to conduct the expedition? What prevented the attempt?

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\* Much important constitutional information could be impressed upon the minds of the young by teachers examining retrospectively on such occasions as the present.



secure the permanence of dominion, but experience has sufficiently taught the contrary. Among other treaties concluded with such hopes, was that called the Quadruple Alliance (July, 1718). It was agreed upon between the emperor of Germany, France, England, and Holland, that the emperor should renounce all pretensions to the crown of Spain, and exchange Sardinia for Sicily with the duke of Savoy; that the succession to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, should be settled on the king of Spain's eldest son by his second queen, the heiress presumptive of these duchies, in case the present possessors should die without male issue. This treaty, however, was by no means agreeable to the king of Spain, and consequently he broke out into open war against the emperor, whom he considered as the chief contriver of this alliance; and a numerous body of Spanish troops were sent into Italy to support Philip's pretensions in that quarter. It was in vain that the regent of France attempted to dissuade him, in vain the king of England offered his mediation; their interposition was rejected as partial and unjust. A strong squadron of twenty-two ships was sent with all expedition into the Mediterranean under the command of Sir George Byng. On arriving at Naples, Byng was informed that the Spaniards, to the amount of 30,000 men, were then actually landed in Sicily. He thereon proceeded thither, encountered the Spaniards off Cape Passord, and destroyed the greater part of their fleet. The islands of Sicily and Sardinia were then recovered, and the king of Spain soon after acceded to the terms of the *quadruple alliance* (Jan. 26, 1720).

500. *The South-Sea scheme, 1720.*—It was about this time that one John Law, a Scotsman, had cheated France by erecting a bubble company under the name of the Mississippi. In like manner the people of England were now deceived by a similar project, which is remembered by the name of the South-sea scheme. To explain this as concisely as possible, it is to be observed, that ever since the revolution of 1688, the government having incurred liabilities beyond the supplies granted by parliament, or what was granted requiring time to be collected, they were obliged to borrow money from several different companies of merchants, among others the one called the South-sea company. This joint-stock company

499. Who were the parties to the Quadruple Alliance? What was its object? Why was a British fleet sent into the Mediterranean? What did it effect? What followed?

500. Of what country was John Law a native, and what scheme did he devise?



was incorporated in the previous reign, and it had at one time a capital of about 34,000,000*l.*, the greater part of which was lent to the government at an annual interest of 6 per cent. As this rate was paid on all money loaned to government, and as it was above the current interest of money, the government desired to reduce it. For that purpose a scheme was proposed by Sir John Blount, a director of the South-sea company. At his instigation the company offered to purchase, on the best conditions they could, all the government debts of the different companies of merchants, and thus make their company the sole creditor of government; offering to accept during six years an interest of 5 per cent., and afterwards 4 per cent. This offer was accepted by the government, and an act was passed, authorising the company to raise funds, and to buy up the government debts (April 12). The scheme as proposed by the ministers and the company was this:—That the company should have an exclusive trade to the South sea, and thereby be enabled to get rich, and to pay large dividends on their shares; that the national creditor should be thus induced to change his security, give up his claim on the public, and with it buy *the shares of the company*; and that the company was to pay a certain interest on their stock, besides dividing their trading profits, and the nation was to pay it the stipulated interest, which was more than money then yielded, to enable the company to pay interest to its shareholders and all expenses. Of this arrangement the advantages to the nation were to be, that the whole national debt, redeemable and irredeemable—or that portion which could not be paid off without the consent of the creditors—was to be made redeemable, while the present interest would be one-sixth less, and after seven years one-third less than the bargain with the original creditors admitted of.

501. *The South-Sea bubble: its principle.*—But now came the part of the scheme big with fraud and ruin. As the directors of the South-sea company could not of themselves be supposed to possess money sufficient to buy up the debts of the nation, they were empowered by statute to raise it by opening a subscription to a scheme for trading in the South seas, from which commerce immense ideal advantages were promised by the cunning directors, and still greater expected by the rapacious credulity of the people. Rumours were spread that government had received overtures from Spain to effect the exchange of Gibraltar for some places in Peru, where the

500. Relate the nature and object of the South-sea scheme.

501. What financial measure was based upon the South-sea scheme? What advantages were promised? How was the public delusion fanned?



company might enlarge their transactions to an almost unlimited extent. After the public were sufficiently stimulated, all persons who were creditors of government were invited to come in, and exchange their stocks for that of the South-sea company. The directors' books were no sooner opened for the first subscription of a million at the rate of 300*l.* for every 100*l.* share, but crowds came to make the exchange of their other stock for South-sea stock on these terms. The delusion was artfully continued and spread. Subscriptions in a very few days sold for double the price they had been bought at. The scheme succeeded even beyond the projector's hopes, and the whole nation was infected with a spirit of avaricious enterprise. The infatuation prevailed; the stock increased to a surprising degree, and to near ten times the value of what it was first subscribed for—that is, that a 100*l.* original share was saleable on the 15th of June at 1000*l.* The bubble was then at its height; and after a variety of shifts it burst upon the country in a flood of indescribable ruin, the shares for which from 300*l.* to 1000*l.* had been paid having fallen to 150*l.* or less. The operation of this premeditated rascality may be thus illustrated:—A national creditor brought his claim for 300*l.* on the nation to the company, and was in return constituted on the first subscription the owner of only 100*l.* of its stock; that is, the company accounted with him on the supposition of owing him only 100*l.*; but in the meantime they accounted with the nation as having paid off, on the part of the nation, a debt to its creditors of 300*l.*; the difference of 200*l.* was to be the profit of the company, and of the original shareholders on selling them. It will now be seen that the national creditor might give, in the progress of these transactions, not only his 300*l.* (national debt) for 100*l.* South-sea stock, but his 1000*l.* national debt for 100*l.* stock, if the stock rose, as it really did, to one thousand pounds per cent.; and it will also be seen, that if the stock did not afterwards pay the holder the same interest which his one thousand pounds before had done, how he might be more or less injured; and if the company's stock, for which he had paid his 1000*l.*, became worth little or nothing, how he might be entirely ruined, parting with his national stock and getting nothing for it. It will now also be seen what buying and selling might ensue, while the stock was varying, and how all the *later* holders, when the stock began to fall, would be the sufferers; and again, that if the original holders of the South-sea stock (the directors and others) sold out stock while it was rising, they

501. To what price did the shares of the South-sea Company rise and fall? How did these fluctuations operate?



and afterwards even those they sold to, might become rich; and if they (the directors) made use of any arts or deception to raise the value of the stock for the purpose of selling it, such as promising a great dividend, &c., they then cheated those to whom they sold their stock. The proceedings of various railway and other companies in our own time have been made more or less bubble-schemes for premeditated fraud. "The principal delinquents in the South-sea bubble fraud were punished by parliament with a forfeiture of all such possessions and estates as they had acquired during the continuance of that popular frenzy; and some care also was taken to redress the sufferers."

502. *Whig Persecutions—Lord Chancellor Macclesfield degraded.*—The discontent occasioned by the South-sea bubble calamity once more gave the Stuart party hopes of succeeding. But in all their councils they were weak, divided, and wavering. The first person who was seized upon suspicion was the tory Francis Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, a prelate long obnoxious to the present government, and possessed of abilities to render him formidable to any ministry (August, 1722). His papers were seized, and he himself confined in the Tower. Soon after the duke of Norfolk, the earl of Orkney, the lords North and Grey, and some others of inferior rank, were arrested and imprisoned. Of all these, however, only the bishop, who was banished, and one Lyster, a barrister, who was hanged at Tyburn, felt the severity of government, the proofs against the rest amounting to no convictive evidence. When the new parliament met, the whig majority suspended the *habeas corpus* act; and as many papists were alleged to have favoured the intended invasion, an act was passed to raise 100,000*l.* upon their property. The next session of parliament was rendered remarkable by the dismissal and impeachment of lord chancellor Macclesfield upon the charge of embezzling the property of widows, orphans, and lunatics; and of having sold places in the court of chancery. "This was one of the most laborious and best-contested trials in the annals of England. The trial lasted twenty days. The earl proved that the sums he received for the sale of places in chancery had been usually received by former lord chancellors; but reason told that such receipts were contrary to

501. How were the principal delinquents punished?

502. What prevented the hopes of the disaffected party, or tories, from succeeding? Who was seized on suspicion, and sent to the Tower? Who were afterwards imprisoned? What was the fate of the bishop?—and of Christopher Lyster? Why was the chancellor Thomas Parker, earl of Macclesfield, arraigned? How long did his trial last?



strict justice. Equity, therefore, prevailed above precedent, the earl was convicted of fraudulent practices, and condemned to a fine of 30,000*l.*, with imprisonment until that sum should be paid" (May, 1725). In the next year fleets were sent into the Baltic to intimidate Russia which now began to intermeddle in the affairs of her neighbours, and to menace the coasts of Spain and the Spanish West Indies. The Spaniards attempted to retaliate for such indirect hostilities; but the resources of the country having become exhausted, and their naval power destroyed, they only made a feeble attempt to recover Gibraltar, the fleets of England preventing them from being able to make any impression upon that fortress. This attempt was quickly followed by a peace with Spain, which terminated the naval operations of this reign (May, 1727).

503. *Death and Character of George I.*—"It was now two years since the king had visited his electoral dominions of Hanover. He, therefore, soon after the breaking up of the parliament, prepared for a journey thither. Having appointed a regency in his absence, he embarked for Hanover on the 3rd of June, and arrived at Delden, to all appearance in perfect health." He supped there very heartily, and continued his progress early the next morning, but had not proceeded far when he was seized with cholic, and it was with difficulty that he reached Osnaburg. He there soon after expired in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign (June 11, 1727), and his body was conveyed to Hanover and buried with his family. He had a son and daughter, George II. his successor, and Sophia-Dorothy, queen of Prussia, mother to Frederick the Great. "Whatever was good or great in the reign of this monarch ought to be ascribed chiefly to himself; wherever he deviated he might have been misled by a ministry, always partial, sometimes corrupt. He was in every instance attended with good fortune, which was partly owing to accident, and more to prudent assiduity. His successes in life are the strongest instance how much may be achieved by moderate abilities, exerted with application and uniformity."

504. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—(1). Attention has constantly been directed to the fact that parliament had always shown more readiness to increase its power than to en-

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502. Why was a fleet sent to the Baltic? How did the Spaniards act? What followed?

503. When and where did George I. expire? In what year of his age and reign did he die? What children did he leave? What view is taken of his character?



large the liberties of the people. The reign of George I. is no exception to this censure. The sovereign, however, was not to blame; he only reigned, while the majority in parliament governed. If the tories, at the close of the last reign, took precautions to preserve the representation in the house of commons to considerable landowners, the whigs, in the present, did not scruple to extend the duration of parliament by a retrospective law to continue themselves in power, and to lessen the popular influence thereon.

(2). As the whig ministers were allowed to govern the country as they pleased, they in return "gratified the sovereign with a continual round of foreign treaties and alliances. It was natural for a king, born and bred in Germany where all sovereignty is possessed upon such precarious tenures, to introduce the same spirit into the British constitution, however independent it might be as to the rest of Europe. This reign, therefore, was begun by treaties, and the latter part of it was burthened with them. The chief object of all was, to secure to the king his dominions in Germany, and exclude the pretender from those of Britain. To effect both purposes, England paid considerable subsidies to many different States in Europe for the promise of their protection and assistance; but it most commonly happened that the connection was changed, or a variance ensued before ever the stipulations on either side were capable of being executed. In this reign there were concluded no less than nine treaties,—the Barrier convention treaty, a defensive alliance with the emperor, the triple alliance, the convention treaty, the quadruple alliance, the congress at Cambray, the treaty of Hanover, the treaty of Vienna, and the convention with Sweden and Hesse-Cassel. All these various and expensive negotiations were mere political playthings; they amused for a while, and were soon neglected, the present interests and passions making new and more natural connections."

(3). Although this reign was a period of great tranquillity, still the corruption, venality, and improvidence of the whig ministry increased the general taxation by about one million, the amount raised on a medium of the four last years of this reign being 6,762,643*l*. The national debt was, however, reduced about two millions, or to 52,092,235*l*., and the interest thereon to 2,217,551*l*. One million of the debt was redeemed by money from the sinking fund, 200,000*l*. was obtained from the East India Company, for the renewal of the charter allowing them the exclusive trade to that country; and 300,000*l*. for the charters of the Royal Exchange and London Assurance Companies.

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## GEORGE II.

Began to reign June 11th, 1727;—died October 25th, 1760.

505. *The Walpole Ministry continued—The Civil List.*—Upon the death of his father, George II. came to the crown in the 45th year of his age. He was a man of inferior ability.

505. In what year did the reign of George II. begin and end? Were his abilities equal to those of his father?



ties to the late king, and strongly biased with a partiality to his Hanoverian dominions. The former ministers were continued, except the earl of Berkley, who was succeeded at the admiralty by lord Torrington, a strong adherent of the minister Sir Robert Walpole. In his speech to parliament, the king expressed great attachment for the people, promising to diminish their burdens as soon as possible. Although economy was professed, the civil list, during the king's life, was fixed at 800,000*l.* a year, or 100,000*l.* more than was granted to the late king, and a jointure of 100,000*l.* a year was settled on the queen. The parliament was then prorogued, and soon after dissolved. On the 11th of October the king and queen were crowned in Westminster-abbey.

506. *Character of Walpole.*—"The chief person who now engrossed the greatest share of power under the king, was Sir Robert Walpole, who had risen from low beginnings, through two successive reigns, into great estimation. He was considered as a martyr to his cause in the reign of queen Anne; and when the tory party could no longer oppress him, he still preserved that hatred against them, with which he set out. To defend the declining prerogative of the crown might, perhaps, have been the first object of his attention; but soon after, those very measures by which he pretended to secure it, proved the most effectual means to lessen it. By corrupting the house of commons, he increased their riches and power; and they were not averse to voting away those millions which he permitted them so liberally to share. As such a tendency in him naturally produced opposition, he was possessed of a most phlegmatic insensibility to reproach, and a calm dispassionate manner of reasoning upon such topics as he desired should be believed. His discourse was fluent, but without dignity; and his manner convincing, from its apparent want of art." That he was one of the ablest ministers that ever guided the councils of England, may now be accepted. His pacific policy and his financial measures afford, at this distance of time, ample evidence of the comprehensiveness and soundness of his views. Persecuted nearly through his whole life by the bitterest party rancour, entangled in the most complicated foreign intrigues, and thwarted alike by the secret predilections of the sovereign for

505. To what part of his dominions had George II. a strong partiality? Who were appointed ministers? What amount of civil list was granted for life to the king? How much did it exceed the sum granted to his father? When and where were the king and queen crowned?

506. What is particularised of Sir Robert Walpole?



continental alliances and war, and by national pride and national prejudice, he eventually succeeded in conducting the State into a harbour of repose. It is, however, impossible to find an excuse for the charge of systematic corruption, which still hangs like a dark cloud over the history of his career.

507. *The Whigs and Tories.*—The House of Brunswick appearing now to be solidly established, political parties changed their position. The whigs, accustomed under the preceding reign to support the crown, now became a species of tories: those of the tories who continued but little favourable to the reigning family, became a species of whigs, or at least they joined the conscientious whigs, who formed the opposition, or the *country* party, while the others formed the court party. “As the court party generally alarmed the house of commons with imaginary dangers and concealed conspiracies; so they, on the country side, generally declaimed against the encroachments of the prerogative, and the overgrown power of the crown. The complaints of neither were founded in fact, the kingdom was in no danger of invasions from abroad, or from plots at home; nor was the crown, on the other hand, gaining any accession of power, *but rather every day losing somewhat of its authority by insensible diminution.* The king, chiefly attentive to his Hanoverian dominions, regarded but little his prerogative at home; and he could admit of many limitations in England, to be possessed of plenary power in dominions which he probably loved more. This favoured the consolidation of all power in the cabinet ministers, who now reigned as well as governed. There seem to be two objects of controversy which, during this whole reign, rose up in debate at every session, and tried the strength of the opponents; these were the national debt, and the number of forces to be kept in pay. The government, at the accession of the present king, owed more than fifty millions of money; and though there was a long continuance of profound peace, yet this sum was continually found increasing. It was much wondered at by the country party how this could happen, and it was constantly the business of the court to give plausible reasons for the increase; and to furnish a new subject of wonder to be debated upon the session ensuing. Thus demands for new supplies were made every session of parliament, either for the purposes of securing friends upon the

506. What else?

507. What is said of the whigs and tories? What was the country party? How did the king act? The country being at peace, were the expenses of government lessened? Why not?



Continent, of guarding the kingdom from internal conspiracies, or of enabling the ministry to act vigorously in conjunction with the powers in alliance abroad. It was vainly alleged that those expenses were incurred without prescience or necessity, and that the increase of the national debt, by multiplying and increasing taxes, would at last become an intolerable burthen. These arguments were offered, canvassed, and rejected; the court party was constantly victorious, and every demand obtained with cheerfulness and profusion. Both sides, from moderate beginnings, at last fairly lifted themselves in the cause, not of truth, but of party. Measures proposed by the ministry, though tending to the benefit of the nation, were opposed by their antagonists, who, on their side, also were abridged the power of carrying any act, how beneficial soever it might have been. A calm disinterested reader is now surprised at the heat with which many subjects at that time, of little importance in themselves, were discussed."

508. *Complaints against Spain, 1729-31.*—Although hostilities with Spain had been terminated by the treaty ratified at Prado, near Madrid, in 1728, when parliament opened next January, the table of the house of commons was loaded with petitions from merchants, complaining of the continued depredations committed by the Spaniards on the British commerce in the West Indies. "The Spaniards were the first nation who showed the futility of treaties to bind, when any advantage was to be procured by infraction. The extreme avidity of our merchants, and the natural jealousy and cruelty of that nation, produced every day encroachments on our side, and as arbitrary seizures on theirs. The people of our West India islands had long carried on a contraband trade with the subjects of Spain upon the American continent, but, whenever detected, were rigorously punished, and their cargoes confiscated to the crown. In this temerity of adventure on the one hand, and vigilance of pursuit and punishment on the other, it must often have happened that the innocent would suffer with the guilty; and many complaints were made, perhaps founded in justice, that the English merchants were plundered by the Spanish king's vessels upon the southern coasts of America, as if they had been pirates. Unwilling to credit every report, which was inflamed by resentment or urged by avarice, the English ministry expected to remedy the evils complained of by their

507. What was at last the conduct of the two political factions?

508. What complaints were made against Spain? Were the British merchants free from blame?



favourite system of treaty, and in the meantime promised the nation redress. At length, however, the complaints became more general, and the merchants remonstrated, by petition, to the house of commons, who entered into a deliberation on the subject. They examined the evidence of several who had been unjustly seized, and treated with great cruelty. One man, the master of a trading vessel, had been used by the Spaniards in the most shocking manner; he gave in his evidence with great precision, informed the house of the manner they had plundered and stripped him, of their cutting off his ears. and their preparing to put him to death. 'I then looked up,' cried he, 'to my God for pardon, and to my country for revenge.' A clamour now arose, which it was neither the minister's interest, nor perhaps that of the nation to indulge: new negotiations were set on foot, and new mediators offered their interposition." At last all differences between England and Spain were adjusted by the treaty of Seville, to which France and Holland were parties (Nov., 1729). By this treaty it was stipulated that Spain should pay 95,000*l.* in satisfaction of all demands for illegal seizures on the coast of America; and that 6000 Spanish troops should be introduced into Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, for the purpose of securing the contingent succession of these duchies to Don Carlos of Spain, as before stipulated in the Quadruple treaty (1718). This last provision gave great offence to the emperor; but all differences were at last adjusted by "the treaty which was signed at Vienna in 1731, between the emperor, the king of Great Britain, and the king of Spain, which settled the peace of Europe upon its former footing, and put off the threatening war for a time. By this treaty, the king of England conceived hopes that all war would be at an end. Shortly after its ratification, Don Carlos, upon the death of the duke of Parma, was, by the assistance of an English fleet, put in peaceable possession of Parma and Placentia, while six thousand Spaniards were quietly admitted, and quartered in the duchy of Tuscany, to secure for him the reversion of that dukedom."

509. *The Age of Frauds—The Charitable Corporation and others, 1731.*—"In this period of profound peace, there was a society of men united into a company by the name of the Charitable Corporation; and their professed intention was to lend money at legal interest to the poor, upon small pledges,

508. How were matters adjusted by the treaty of Seville? On what footing was the peace of Europe settled by the treaty of Vienna?

509. Relate the nature and consequences of the Charitable Corporation fraud.



and to persons of higher rank upon proper security. Their capital was at first limited to 30,000*l.*, but they afterwards increased it to 600,000*l.* This money was supplied by subscription, and the care of conducting the capital was entrusted to a proper number of directors. This company having continued for more than twenty years, the cashier, George Robinson member of parliament for Marlow, and the warehouse-keeper, John Thompson, disappeared in one day (1731): 500,000*l.* of capital was found to be sunk and embezzled by means which the proprietors could not discover. They therefore, in a petition, represented to the house the manner in which they had been defrauded, and the distress to which many of the petitioners were reduced. A secret committee being appointed to examine into this grievance, a most iniquitous scene of fraud was soon discovered, which had been carried on by Robinson and Thompson, in concert with some of the directors, for embezzling the capital, and cheating the proprietors. Many persons of rank and quality were concerned in this infamous conspiracy; and even some of the first characters in the nation did not escape censure. A spirit of avarice and rapacity infected every rank of life about this time; no less than six members of parliament were expelled for the most sordid acts of knavery,—Sir Robert Sutton, Sir Archibald Grant, and George Robinson, for their frauds in the management of the Charitable Corporation scheme; Dennis Bond and serjeant Burch, for a fraudulent sale of the late unfortunate earl of Derwentwater's large estate; and, lastly, John Ward, of Hackney, for forgery. Luxury had given birth to prodigality, and that was the parent of the meanest arts of speculation. It was asserted in the house of lords, at that time, that not one shilling of the forfeited estates was ever applied to the service of the public, but became the reward of fraud and venality."

510. *The Excise, its Origin.*—"A scheme, set on foot by Sir Robert Walpole, soon after engrossed the attention of the public, which was to fix a general excise." The first excise duties collected in England were imposed during the civil war in 1641, upon ale, beer, cyder, perry, and other home-made liquors *sold by retail*. To enforce them produced serious riots, and it was only by the parliament solemnly promising to abolish them at the end of the war that the people could be induced to submit. When the war was over, however, parliament instead of fulfilling its pledge, imposed fresh excise duties upon other articles, intending to go still further,

509. Who were the principal delinquents?

510. Relate the history of the excise.



as the people got used to it, by little and little. But the increasing discontent, aggravated by the faithlessness of the legislature, led to the repeal of all those duties at the Restoration, except the excise upon beer, ale, cyder, and perry, which produced about 666,383*l*. This revenue was then divided into two portions: the one called the temporary, because it was granted only for the life of the king, and the other called the hereditary excise, because it was granted to Charles II and his successors as an equivalent for the abolition of the feudal tenures. Thus, while the landholders exempted themselves from the future payment of their state rents, they granted a so-called equivalent to be levied by an excise on the beverages of the labouring classes, and authorised its collection in such a manner that in many respects it took an inquisitorial and despotic form, which was considered as an infringement on private property and personal liberty. A variety of penalties and other punishments followed in the wake of these injurious enactments, and embraced such a multitude of persons as to render the clamour against them almost irresistible. The horror of these oppressions was revived by the rumours that prevailed respecting Walpole's intention to resort to a similar system of finance upon an extensive scale, even before he had declared his intention.

511. *Walpole's Excise Scheme, 1732.*—"Sir Robert Walpole introduced his excise scheme in the house of commons by going into a detail of the frauds practised by the factors in London, who were employed by the American planters in selling their tobacco. To prevent these frauds, he proposed, that, instead of having the customs levied in the usual manner upon tobacco, all hereafter to be imported should be lodged in warehouses appointed for that purpose by the officers of the crown," to which there should be two locks, that the merchant should have one key, and the officers of excise the other, so that the warehouses could only be opened in the presence of both; that the merchant should, on landing the tobacco, pay to the customs a duty of three farthings per pound, which, however, should be repaid to him if he again exported it. That a further duty of fourpence per pound should be paid on tobacco when delivered out of the warehouse for home consumption. These details were given by the minister as an illustration of his scheme, the specific details of which were the division of all commodities into taxed and untaxed, and the conversion of the customs' duties

510. When were excise duties first levied? What was promised on that occasion?

511. State the particulars of Walpole's excise scheme.



into excise duties, which would have made the ports of this country *free ports*. Walpole's scheme was the foreshadowing of the bonding warehouse system, which makes this country the entrepôt for the markets of the world, an unquestionable commercial advantage. "Walpole's proposal raised a violent ferment, not less within doors than without. It was asserted that it would expose the factors to such hardships, that they would not be able to continue their trade, and that such a scheme would not even prevent the frauds complained of. It was added, that a number of additional excisemen and warehouse-keepers would thus be employed, which would at once render the ministry formidable and the people dependent. Such were the arguments made use of to stir up the citizens to oppose this law; arguments rather specious than solid, since, with all its disadvantages, the tax upon tobacco would thus be more safely and expeditiously collected, and the avenues to numberless frauds would be shut up. The people, however, were raised into such a ferment, that the parliament-house was surrounded with multitudes, who intimidated the ministry and compelled them to drop the design. The miscarriage of the bill was celebrated with public rejoicings in London and Westminster, and the minister was burned in effigy by the populace of London." It was on this occasion that Walpole made his memorable declaration, that no revenue ought to be levied in a free country that depended on the sword and the bayonet for its collection.

512. *Spanish Outrages—Reprisals authorised, 1739.*—While the English government was absorbed in domestic affairs, the materials of fresh discord were rapidly forming on the Continent. Ever since the peace of Utrecht in 1713, Spain had beheld with great jealousy the growing commerce and increasing naval consequence of England, particularly in the neighbourhood of her possessions in South America, where she was most vulnerable, and entertained the strongest fears of intrusion. Anxious to monopolise to herself the whole commerce and wealth of Mexico and Peru, the vessels of foreign powers were forbid, under severe penalties, to approach within a certain distance of the coasts of her American colonies; and, to enforce this regulation, the American seas were filled with Spanish cruisers, under the name of *guarda costas*. "The right which the English merchants claimed by treaty, of cutting logwood in the bay of Campeachy, gave them frequent opportunities of pushing in contraband com-

511. What important customs measure did Walpole's excise scheme foreshadow? Why did he abandon his most liberal bill?



modities upon the Continent; so that to suppress the evil, the Spaniards were resolved to annihilate the claim. The liberty of cutting logwood had often been acknowledged, but never clearly ascertained; in all former treaties it was considered as an object of too little importance to make a separate article in any negotiation. The Spanish cruisers appointed for protecting the coast captured many British vessels engaged in the contraband trade, and committed great severities upon the crews; many subjects of Britain were sent to dig in the mines of Potosi, and deprived of all means of conveying their complaints to those who might send them redress. One remonstrance followed another to the court of Madrid on this violation of treaty; but the only answers given were promises of inquiry, which produced no reformation. Our merchants complained loudly of those outrages, but the ministers vainly expected from negotiations that redress which was only to be obtained by arms. This pusillanimity served only to increase the insolence of the Spaniards, and their guard-ships continued to seize not only all the guilty, but the innocent, whom they found sailing along the Spanish main. At last, however, the complaints of the English merchants were loud enough to interest the house of commons; their letters and memorials were produced, and their grievances enforced by counsel at the bar of the house. It was soon found that the money which Spain had agreed to pay to the sufferers by the treaty of Pardo (1728) was withheld, and no reason assigned for the delay. The minister, therefore, to gratify the general ardour, and to atone for his former deficiencies, assured the house that he would put the nation in a condition for war (1738). Soon after letters of reprisals were granted against the Spaniards, and this being on both sides considered as an actual commencement of hostilities, both diligently set forward their armaments by sea and land. In this threatening situation the French minister at the Hague declared that his master was obliged by treaty to assist the king of Spain; so that the alliances, which but 20 years before had taken place, were now quite reversed. At that time (1718) France and England were combined against Spain; at present, France and Spain were united against England; such little hopes can

512. What gave rise to the Spanish outrages on the British merchants? What gave the latter an opportunity of disposing of their contraband commodities? How did the Spaniards attempt to remedy that evil? How were the subjects of Britain treated by the Spaniards? Did the Spanish guard-ships seize only the guilty? What discovery was made when the subject was brought before parliament? What did the minister then do? How did France act?



statesmen place upon the firmest treaties, where there is no superior power to compel the observance."

513. *War with Spain—Vernon captures Porto Bello, 1739* —"A rupture between England and Spain being now become unavoidable, the people, who had long clamoured for war, began to feel uncommon alacrity at its approach; and the ministry, finding it inevitable, began to be as earnest in preparation. Orders were issued for augmenting the land forces, and for raising a body of marines. War was declared with proper solemnity, and soon after two rich Spanish prizes were taken in the Mediterranean. Admiral Vernon, a man of more courage than experience, had asserted in the house of commons that Porto Bello, a fort and harbour in South America, could be easily destroyed, and that he himself would undertake to reduce it, with six ships only. A project which appeared so wild and impossible was ridiculed by the ministry; but as Vernon still persisted in the proposal they complied with his request, hoping that his want of success might repress the confidence of his party." In July, 1739, he was advanced to the rank of vice-admiral of the blue, and appointed commander-in-chief of all his majesty's ships in the West Indies. The force he had required being collected, he sailed with his fleet for Jamaica, where he arrived on the 23rd of October. Having refitted his squadron with the utmost diligence, he sailed from thence on the 5th of November, with the following ships—the Burford of 70 guns, the Hampton Court of 70 guns, the Norwich of 50 guns, the Worcester of 60 guns, the Stafford of 60 guns, Louisa of 60 guns, and the Sheerness frigate. On the 20th of November the squadron came in sight of Porto Bello, and next morning he plied to windward in line of battle, but the wind proving easterly he was only able to attack the Iron castle. The Hampton Court, in the van, attacked it with great fury, and was soon assisted by the Norwich and Worcester. The admiral coming up soon after, together with these ships, kept up so severe a fire on the enemy, that the Spaniards deserted their batteries, and fled for security to their ambuscades. This being perceived, the admiral made the signal for landing, which was so promptly executed, that in a few minutes the seamen and troops landed in front of the enemy's lower battery, with the loss of only two soldiers. As a substitute for scaling ladders, one man set himself close to the wall under an embrasure, whilst another climbed upon his shoulders and gained the platform. The

513. What did the Spaniards lose in the Mediterranean? Who was appointed to command a fleet in the West Indies, and what was his character?



Spaniards in the castle, struck with consternation at the boldness of the assailants, surrendered at discretion; and the next day the castles of St. Jeronimo and Gloria also capitulated, which put the British forces in full possession of Porto Bello and its dependencies (Nov. 22, 1739). The loss in killed and wounded did not exceed 20 men, of which three were killed and five wounded on board Vernon's ship. The intelligence of this important conquest, effected with such unprecedented ease and expedition, was received in England with the liveliest emotions of joy: both houses of parliament voted their thanks to admiral Vernon for his conduct, and the city of London presented him with the freedom of the city in a gold box. As it had never been the intention to retain Porto Bello, the fortifications were completely destroyed, so as no longer to afford an asylum to the *guarda costas*, from whence they had for a series of years annoyed the British commerce in that quarter by their incessant depredations. These different services being performed, admiral Vernon sailed from Porto Bello on the 13th of December, and shortly afterwards arrived in safety at Jamaica.

514. *Commodore Anson—Capture of Païta.*—"In the next year (1740) a squadron of ships were also equipped for distressing the enemy in the South Seas, the command of which was given to commodore Anson. This fleet was destined to sail through the straits of Magellan, and steering northwards along the coasts of Chili and Peru, to co-operate occasionally with admiral Vernon across the isthmus of Darien. These delays and mistakes of the ministry frustrated that part of the scheme, which was originally well laid. When it was too late in the season, the commodore sailed from Spithead, with the *Centurion* of 60 guns, the *Gloucester* of 50 guns, the *Severn* of 50 guns, the *Pearl* of 40 guns, the *Wager* of 28 guns, the *Tryal* sloop, and the *Anna* and *Industry* pinks, victualling tenders. This fleet had 470 marines on board, commanded by lieutenant-colonel Cracherade, and was ordered to distress the enemy where their weakness might afford a favourable opportunity, and their wealth would enrich those concerned in the enterprise. Having reached the coast of Brazil, he refreshed his men for some time on the island of St. Catherine, a spot that enjoys all the fruitfulness and verdure of the luxurious tropical climate. From thence he steered downward into the cold and tempestuous regions of the south; and in about five months after, meeting a terrible

513. What did he accomplish?

514. Who received the command in the South Seas, and how was he directed to act?



tempest, he doubled Cape Horn. By this time his fleet was dispersed, and his crew deplorably disabled by the scurvy; so that with much difficulty he gained the delightful island of Juan Fernandes," the mild and salubrious climate of which soon produced a visible amendment in the sick, and checked the inveteracy of their malady. The most prudent measures were adopted by the commodore to profit by the advantages of his situation. Tents were erected on shore for the accommodation of the sick, in places calculated for their comfort, while the island furnished antiscorbutic productions in great abundance. By these means most of the invalids recovered, and after the second day not more than ten died during their three months' continuance on the island. Having recovered his men and refitted his little fleet, the commodore, despairing of being joined by the missing ships of his squadron, resolved to commence his operations against the enemy as soon as possible. Accordingly, on the 8th of September, the commodore proceeded towards Païta, and on the 12th captured a prize, which had stopped the day before at Païta, and obtained from the prisoners such an account of the defenceless state of the town, that he determined to attack it without loss of time. They were now about twelve leagues distant; and lest the inhabitants should be alarmed by the appearance of the ships, the commodore resolved to attempt the place with his boats only. Accordingly, he sent off the boats at night with fifty-eight chosen men, and in less than a quarter of an hour from the first landing, and with no other loss than one man killed and two wounded, the party became masters of the place. The Spaniards, unable to resist the desperate efforts of British valour, fled with the utmost consternation into the country, leaving their valuable effects behind. The treasure taken at Païta amounted to upwards of 30,000*l.* sterling, but the loss of the Spaniards was far greater, and was estimated at a million and a half of dollars. The vessels found in the harbour were destroyed, except the *Solidad*, the largest and best ship, which the commodore put in commission.

515. *Expedition against Carthagena: its Failure.*—The easy reduction of Porto Bello determined the government at home to send out such a reinforcement to the West Indies as should enable admiral Vernon to attack the most formidable of the

514. Describe the course, intentions, and success of Anson. With what design did Anson set out? Of what did the armament consist? Who commanded the land forces? What were the particulars of his voyage previous to his expedition against Païta?

514. How was Païta captured?



Spanish settlements in the new world. When Anson set out, it was with a design of acting a subordinate part to a formidable armament designed for the coasts of New Spain, consisting of 31 ships of the line, and almost an equal number of frigates, with near 15,000 seamen, and as many land forces. Never was a fleet more completely equipped, nor ever had the nation more sanguine hopes of success. It sailed from Jamaica, in January, 1741, under the command of admiral Vernon and general Wentworth. The fleet anchored on the 4th of March in Playa Grande Bay, and on the 9th brought-to under the forts of Bocca Chica, which defend the entrance to the harbour of Carthagená. The first successes of the assailants promised a speedy and honourable termination of their enterprise. In less than an hour the enemy were driven by the fire of the shipping from the forts, and in the evening a detachment of grenadiers took possession of them. The next day the soldiers and marines were landed without opposition, and by the 15th all the artillery and stores of the army. A tolerable breach having been made in the castle, the troops marched to the attack on the 25th, and no sooner entered the breach, than the Spaniards deserted the forts, which, if possessed of courage, they might have defended with success. "The troops, upon gaining this advantage, were advanced nearer to the city; but there they met a greater opposition than they expected. It was found, or at least asserted, that the fleet could not lie near enough to batter the town, and that nothing remained but to attempt one of the forts by scaling. The leaders of the fleet and the army began mutually to accuse each other, each asserting the probability of what the other denied. At length general Wentworth, stimulated by the admiral's reproach, resolved to attempt Fort St. Lazare by scalade. Nothing could be more unfortunate; the guides were slain, and the forces mistook their way. Instead of attempting the weakest part of the fort, they advanced to where it was strongest, and where they were exposed to the fire of the town. It was also found that their scaling ladders were too short; the officers were perplexed for want of orders, and the troops stood exposed to the whole fire of the enemy, without knowing how to proceed. After bearing a dreadful fire for some hours with great intrepidity, they retreated, leaving six hundred men dead on the spot. The terrors of the climate soon began to be more dreaded than those of war: the rainy season came on with such violence, that it was impossible for the troops to continue encamped: and the mortality of the season began to attack

515. What are the leading particulars of the attack on Carthagená?



them in all its frightful varieties. To these calamities, sufficient to quell any enterprise, was added the dissension between the land and sea commanders, who blamed each other for every failure, and became frantic with mutual recrimination. They only, therefore, at last, could be brought to agree in one mortifying measure, which was to re-embark the troops, and withdraw them as quick as possible from this scene of slaughter and contagion." The armament returned to Jamaica on the 19th of May, having lost 3000 men in the different attacks and by sickness. "This fatal miscarriage, which tarnished the British glory, was no sooner known in England, than the kingdom was filled with murmurs and discontent. The loudest burst of indignation was directed at the minister; and they who once praised him for success he did not merit, condemned him now for a failure of which he was guiltless."

516. *Anson captures the Manilla Galleon.*—Anson's squadron of six vessels sailed from Païta on the 10th of November, 1741. On learning that the English expedition against Carthage had failed, and, therefore, that he could not hope to be reinforced across the isthmus, "the commodore now placed all his hopes in taking one of those valuable Spanish ships which trade from the Philippine islands to Mexico. Not above one or two at the most of these immensely rich ships went from one continent to the other in a year; they were, therefore, very large, in order to carry a sufficiency of treasure, and proportionably strong to defend it. In hopes of meeting with one of these, the commodore, with his little fleet, traversed the Pacific Ocean; but the scurvy once more visiting his crew, several of his men died, and almost all were disabled. In this exigence, having brought all his men into one vessel, and set fire to the other, he steered for the island of Tinian, which lies about half-way between the New world and the Old. In this charming abode he continued for some time, till all his men recovered their health, and his ship was refitted for sailing. He set forward for China, where he laid in proper stores for once more traversing back that immense ocean, in which he had just before suffered such incredible difficulties. Having accordingly taken some Dutch and Indian sailors on board, he again steered towards America; and at length, after various toils, discovered the Spanish galleon he had so long and ardently expected (June 20, 1743). This vessel was built as well for the purposes of war as of merchandise. It mounted sixty guns, and five hundred men, while the crew of the commodore did not amount to half that number." An action com-

516. How did Anson proceed to intercept the Manilla galleon?



menced between the two ships within pistol-shot, which was maintained by the galleon with great gallantry for an hour and a half, when she surrendered. The prize was commanded by a Spanish admiral, who was wounded in the engagement; and the treasure on board amounted to 1,313,843 pieces of eight, and 35,682 ounces of virgin silver and plate, amounting in value to 313,000*l*. Scarcely had the galleon struck when Anson was told that the Centurion was on fire near the powder-room. This appalling information was received without apparent emotion, Anson desiring that care should be taken not to alarm the people. By this judicious conduct, and making use of the proper means, the fire was happily extinguished. The commodore proceeded to the river Canton with his prize, where he removed the treasure into his own ship, and sold the galleon to the merchants of Macao for 6000 dollars. The Centurion thereafter sailed from Macao on the 15th of December, and arrived in safety at Spithead on the 15th of May, 1744. "Thus, after a voyage of three years, conducted with astonishing perseverance and intrepidity, the public sustained the loss of a noble fleet; but a few individuals became possessed of immense riches."

517. *Fall of Walpole—Pulteney Minister, 1742.* — "The clamour raised against Walpole so influenced the elections for the new parliament, that when it assembled in December, 1741, he found himself unable to command a majority in the Commons. But it was not until several times defeated by the desertion of many whom he had greatly benefited, that he declared he would never sit in that house again (Feb. 2, 1742). Next day the king adjourned both houses for a fortnight, to give time for the formation of a new ministry. On the 9th Walpole was created earl of Orford; and on the 11th he resigned all his employments. At no time of life did the fallen minister acquit himself with such art as on the present occasion. His opponents consisted of Tories, reinforced by discontented Whigs; the former, implacable in their resentments against him, could not be mollified; the latter, either soured by disappointment, or incited by ambition, only wished his removal. To these, therefore, Walpole applied, and promised to procure them that power they aimed at, in return for which he only demanded impunity for the past. The offer was accepted with pleasure; their Tory friends were instantly abandoned; and a breach thus ensuing, the combination that had been formed against him was broken up.

516. What was the value of the capture?

517. Against whom was the public discontent expressed? Why did Walpole resign office? Upon whom did the public odium next fall?



The discontented and ambitious Pulteney was intrusted to reconstruct a Whig administration, and was induced to make few changes in men or in measures. It, therefore, soon appeared that those who declared most loudly for the liberty of the people, adopted no new measures with their new employments. The new comers were accordingly branded as betrayers of the interests of their country; but particularly the resentment of the people fell upon Pulteney, now earl of Bath, who had long declaimed against that very conduct he seemed to pursue. He had been the idol of the people, and considered as one of the most illustrious champions that had ever defended the cause of freedom; but allured, perhaps, with the hope of governing in Walpole's place, he was contented to give up his popularity for ambition. The king, however, treated him with that neglect which he merited; he was laid aside for life, and continued a wretched survivor of all his former importance."

518. *War of the Austrian Succession*.—Before the fall of Walpole, a great convulsion of the system of Europe had occurred, which aimed at the destruction of one of its leading monarchies, and threatened the overthrow of the whole. The emperor Charles VI., the last male descendant of the house of Hapsburg, died on the 20th of October, 1740, leaving his daughter Maria Theresa, the successor to all his States,\* according to the Pragmatic Sanction, which had been acknowledged by all the great European powers. However, no sooner had she ascended the throne, than she was surrounded by a host of enemies who disputed the succession with her. Among the claimants were the electors of Bavaria and of Saxony, who had married the daughters of Joseph, elder brother of the deceased emperor. The king of Sardinia affected the duchy of Milan, while the kings of Spain and Poland claimed the whole Austrian dominions. But Frederic II. of Prussia was the first to commence hostilities. Supported by a large army and an ample treasury, he advanced some groundless claims to the province of Silesia, invaded the country, which was almost defenceless, and achieved its conquest in 1741. The distracted condition of the Austrian monarchy at this moment offered a tempting opportunity to France to assist in overthrowing her ancient rival,

518. In what situation did the queen of Hungary find herself upon her father's death? Who seized on Silesia?

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\* The States bequeathed to Maria Theresa were:—Upper and Lower Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, Silesia, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Burgo, Brisgau, the Tyrol, Friuli, Milan, Parma, Placentia, the Netherlands, and part of Swabia.



and dismembering her provinces. No semblance of justice could be shown for the interference of this power; for France had not merely recognised, but had actually guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction. A secret league was, nevertheless, concluded between France, Bavaria, Spain, and Saxony. This confederacy was conditionally joined by Frederic; and Prussia, for the first time, became the ally of France. Thus was the Austrian monarchy threatened by an alliance composed of more than half of Europe, with little prospect of foreign aid. England was already in open war with Spain; and, to prevent Russia from offering assistance to Maria Theresa, the allies contrived to involve that State in a war with Sweden. While Frederic was engaged in conquering Silesia, a French and Bavarian army penetrated into Upper Austria and Bohemia, and conquered Prague. The elector of Bavaria soon after received homage at Frankfort as emperor of Germany, under the title of Charles VII. (Jan. 4, 1742). After the pacific Walpole had yielded his place to the more vehement Carteret, England interfered. "It may now be demanded, what cause Britain had to intermeddle in these continental schemes? It can only be answered, that the interest of Hanover, and the security of that electorate, depended upon the nicely balancing the different interests of the empire; and the English ministry were willing to gratify the king. Accordingly, the king sent a body of English forces into the Netherlands, which he had augmented by 16,000 Hanoverians, to make a diversion upon the dominions of France, in the queen of Hungary's favour. And by the assistance of these the queen of Hungary soon began to turn the scale of victory on her side. The French were driven out of Bohemia. Her general, prince Charles, at the head of a large army, invaded the dominions of Bavaria. Her rival, the nominal emperor, was obliged to fly before her; and being abandoned by his allies, was stripped of even his hereditary dominions" (1743).

519. *Victory of Dettingen, 1743.*—"In 1743 the French, in order to prevent the junction of the Austrian and British forces, assembled an army of 60,000 men upon the river Mayne, under the command of marshal Noailles, who posted his troops upon the east side of that river. The British forces, to the number of 40,000, pushed forward on the other side into a country where they were entirely destitute of pro-

518. Who attacked the rest of her dominions? Who assisted her? Why did Britain intermeddle in the continental contention? With what forces did the king of Britain make a diversion in her favour?

519. Where, and with how many men, did the French attempt to prevent a junction of the Austrian and British forces?



visions, the French having cut off all means of their being supplied. The king of England arriving at the camp, while his army was in this deplorable situation, resolved to penetrate forward to join 12,000 Hanoverians and Hessians, who had reached Hanau on the road to Frankfort; but before his army had reached three leagues, he found the enemy had inclosed him on every side, near the village called Dettingen. Nothing now presented but the most mortifying prospects; if he fought the enemy, it must be at the greatest disadvantage; if he continued inactive, there was a certainty of being starved; and a retreat for all was impossible. The impetuosity of the French troops saved his whole army. They passed a defile which they should have been contented to guard; and advanced into the open country, under the command of the duke of Gramont, their horse charging the English foot with great fury. They were received with intrepidity and resolution; so that they were obliged to give way, and repass the Mayne with precipitation, with the loss of 5000 men, and many officers of distinction." The allies lost 2231 in killed and wounded. George II. fought on foot and on horseback; sometimes at the head of his infantry, and at others at the head of the cavalry; the duke of Cumberland was wounded riding by his side; the Austrian general-in-chief, the duke d'Artemberg, was also wounded. The king dined on the field of battle, and afterwards retreated (June, 1743). After this action, the English and French commanders-in-chief, marshals Noailles and Stair, went to Frankfort, a neutral city, where they found the emperor labouring under the greatest chagrin and poverty, even destitute of the means of supporting his family in the city where he was so lately crowned. On the British being joined by the Hanoverians and Hessians, marshal Stair would have followed the French into Alsace; but it was not agreed to by George II., as he was not a principal in the war. The earl of Stair then solicited for leave to resign, which obtaining, the troops were led into quarters in and around Metz, and desisted from further operations that campaign.

520. *Threatened Invasion, 1744* — "Meanwhile the French went on with vigour on every side. They successfully opposed the Austrians, and interrupted their attempts to pass the Rhine. They gained also some successes in Italy; but their chief hopes were placed upon a projected invasion of

519. In what condition were the British forces when the King arrived? Where was George II. attacked by the French army, and under whose command? With what loss were the French obliged to repass the Mayne? How was the campaign ended?



England. By the violence of parliamentary disputes France had been persuaded that England was long ripe for a revolution, and only wanted the presence of a pretender to bring about the change. Several needy adventurers, who wished for a revolution, some men of broken fortunes, and many Roman catholics, endeavoured to confirm the court of France in these sentiments, of which they themselves were persuaded. An invasion therefore was actually projected; and Charles-Edward, son of the old pretender, departed from Rome in the disguise of a Spanish courier, for Paris, where he had an audience of the French king. The Stuart family had long been the dupes of France; but it was thought at present there were serious resolutions formed in their favour. The troops destined for the expedition amounted to 15,000 men; preparations were made for embarking them at Dunkirk, and some of the nearest ports to England, under the eye of the young pretender. The duke de Roquefuille, with 20 ships of the line, was to see them safely landed in England, and the famous marshal Saxe was to command them, when put on shore. But the whole project was disconcerted by the appearance of Sir John Norris, who, with a superior fleet, made up to attack them. The French fleet was thus obliged to put back; a very hard gale of wind damaged their transports beyond redress; and the French, now frustrated in their scheme of a sudden descent, thought fit to openly declare war against England, which was followed by a similar denunciation against France" (March, 1744).

521. *Naval Disgrace: Admirals Matthews and Lestock, 1744.* —"But though fortune seemed to favour England on this occasion, yet in other respects she was not equally propitious. The English ministry had sent into the Mediterranean a powerful squadron of ships to over-awe those States who might be inclined to lend assistance to France or Spain. This fleet had been conducted by Lestock; but admiral Matthews, though a younger officer, was sent out to take the superior command, which produced a misunderstanding between the commanders. There was soon an opportunity offered for these officers to discover their mutual animosity, to the damage of their country, and their own disgrace. The combined fleets of France and Spain, to the number of 34 sail, which had for a long time been blockaded in Toulon, were peremptorily ordered to put to sea at all hazards. Accordingly they issued out from the roads of Toulon on the morning of the 11th of February, 1744. Immediately thereafter a signal was made by the English admiral to

521. State the principal facts of the dissension between Matthews and Lestock.



prepare for engaging. It happened that his signals were not perfectly exact; he had hung out that for forming line of battle, together with the signal for engaging. This was a sufficient excuse to Lestock for refusing to come up with alacrity; so that after some vain efforts to attack the enemy in conjunction, Matthews resolved to engage as well as he could." At this time the fleets were at such a distance from each other, that it was one o'clock before the *Namur*, which bore admiral Matthews's flag, got abreast of the *Real* of 100 guns, the flag-ship of the Spanish admiral, and rear-admiral Rowley abreast of the *Terrible*, the flag-ship of the French admiral: a very few captains followed the example of their commanders; but vice-admiral Lestock, with his whole division, remained at a great distance astern; and several captains who were immediately under the eye of Matthews behaved in such a manner as reflected disgrace upon their country. To give his ships an opportunity of coming up to his assistance, admiral Matthews engaged with the utmost intrepidity, and was nobly supported by his seconds, the *Marlborough*, captain Cornwall, and the *Norfolk*, captain Forbes. Rear-admiral Rowley was not less ably supported by captain Osborne, in the *Princess Caroline*; and captain Hawke, in the *Berwick*, gave his country an admirable foretaste of that bravery which he afterwards exhibited in a more prominent capacity. The engagement that followed consisted of a series of skirmishes through four successive days; but such was the confusion of purposes between the British commanders, that the result was wholly indecisive, although, from the advantages possessed by the English fleet, the destruction of the enemy seemed inevitable. A court-martial was held in England upon the occasion, at which Matthews, who had gallantly rushed upon the enemy, was dismissed the service, while his second in command, who had looked coolly on, after refusing to co-operate, was acquitted of having acted improperly. When this sentence was communicated to the king, he is reported to have said, 'That he did not understand naval evolutions, and consequently could not say whether Matthews had acted rightly, but he knew that he had fought bravely, and therefore he was astonished at the severity of his sentence.' The nation was not less surprised at this sentence than his majesty. The people naturally inquired for the person who had best acquitted himself as a gallant man; and when they found that the commander-in-chief had actively and spiritedly engaged in the centre of the enemy's fleet, and that he was left exposed to a destructive fire whilst his vice-admiral refused to come up to his assistance, and did not even venture within gun-shot, they felt the impulse of



a generous indignation, and considered that if admiral Matthews were justly condemned, the other ought to have been shot. Happily, for the honour of the British navy, this was only the second disgrace\* to which it had been subjected, and it is to be hoped that many a generous sacrifice will yet be made to support the honour and bravery of a commander, to atone for the disgraceful abandonment of a Benbow and a Matthews.

522. *Campaigns of 1744-5—Battle of Fontenoy.*—"In 1744 the proceedings in the Netherlands were as unfavourable to the English arms as their most sanguine enemies could desire. The French had assembled a formidable army of 120,000 men, the chief command of which was given to marshal count Saxe, natural son to the late king of Poland. He had been bred from his youth in camps, and had shown very early instances of cool intrepidity. By long habit this general had learned to preserve an equal composure in the midst of battle, and seemed as serene in the thickest fire, as in the drawing-room at court. To oppose this great general, the English were headed by the duke of Cumberland, who neither possessed such talents for war, nor was able to bring such a formidable body of men into the field. The French therefore entered upon the war with great alacrity, and captured in this campaign the fortresses of Courtray, Menim, Ypres, and Fuernes. In the beginning of the succeeding campaign they besieged Fribourg, and invested the strong city of Tournay. Although the allies were inferior in number, and although commanded by the duke of Cumberland, yet they resolved, if possible, to save this city by hazarding a battle. They accordingly marched against the enemy, and took post in sight of the French, who were encamped on an eminence, the village of St. Antoine on the right, a wood on the left, and the town of Fontenoy before them. This advantageous situation did not repress the ardour of the English, who began the attack at two o'clock in the morning, and pressing forward, bore down all opposition. They were for near an hour victorious and confident of success; while

522. What was the result of the campaign of 1744? Were the French generally successful in 1745? Who commanded the British forces at Fontenoy, and who gained the victory?

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\* The first similar naval disgrace was in the chivalrous Bourbon's encounter with Du Casse, off Jamaica, in July, 1702. The French admiral, it is said, felt so much for the distress and ill-usage of his heroic opponent, that he sent him the following letter:—

"Sir,—I had little hopes on Monday last but to have supped in your cabin, but it pleased God to order it otherwise; I am thankful for it. As for those cowardly captains who deserted you, hang them up, for by — they deserve it.—Yours, DU CASSE."



marshal Saxe was during the action so sick of the disorder of which he afterwards died, that he was carried about to all the posts in a litter, and assured his attendants, that, notwithstanding all unfavourable appearances, the day was his own. A column of the English, without any command, but by mere mechanical courage, had advanced upon the enemy's lines, which opening, formed an avenue on each side to receive them. It was then that the French artillery on the three sides began to play on this forlorn body, which, though they continued for a long time unshaken, were obliged at last to retreat about three in the afternoon. This was one of the most bloody battles that had been fought in this age; the allies left on the field of battle near 12,000 men, and the French bought their victory with near an equal number of slain" (May 1, 1745). After the battle of Fontenoy, the French renewed the siege of Tournay and took the town and citadel; and afterwards Ghent, Bruges, Oudenarde, Dendermond, Ostend, Newport, and other towns. All this time the allied army lay encamped between Antwerp and Brussels, without daring to oppose the French.

523. *The Pretender lands in Scotland—Victorious at Prestonpans.*—"Although bad success had attended the British arms by land and sea, yet these being distant evils, the English only murmured at distresses of which they had but a very remote prospect. A civil war was now going to be kindled in their own dominions, which only cemented their union. The intended French invasion in the previous year had roused all the attention of the people, and nothing breathed throughout the whole kingdom but the destruction of a popish pretender, who showed that he was willing to be made a king, even by the open enemies of his country. The people, therefore, were never so ill-disposed to receive him as at the very time he pitched upon to make a descent. The young Charles Edward, son of the old pretender and grandson of James II., had been bred in a luxurious court, without partaking of its effeminacy. He was enterprising and ambitious; but, either from inexperience, or natural inability, utterly unequal to the bold undertaking. He was long flattered by the rash, the superstitious, and the needy; he was taught to believe that the kingdom was ripe for a revolt, and that it could no longer bear the immense load of taxes with which it was burthened. Being furnished with some money, and with still larger promises from France, who

522. What was the loss on both sides, at the battle of Fontenoy? What towns were taken by the French in 1745?

523. Of whom was Charles Edward Stuart the son and grandson? What was his character?



fanned his ambition, he now embarked from Lazare in Brittany for Scotland, on board a small frigate, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, Sir Thomas Sheridan, and a few other desperate adventurers. Prince Charles landed in the western islands in August, 1745, while the king was at Hanover. At first the rumour of his landing was treated as a fiction; but as he advanced to the southward, acquiring unusual strength on his march, the regency took energetic measures to oppose him. When Charles arrived at Dunkeld, near Perth, he proclaimed his father king of Great Britain (Sept. 3). From thence descending with his forces from the mountains, they seemed to gather as they went forward; and advancing to Edinburgh, they entered that city without opposition. There again the pageantry of proclamation was performed; and there he promised to dissolve the union, which was considered as one of the grievances of the country. However, the castle of that city still held out, and he was unprovided with cannon to besiege it. Sir John Cope, who had pursued the rebels through the highlands, but had declined meeting them in their descent, being now reinforced by two regiments of dragoons, resolved to march towards Edinburgh, and give the enemy battle. The young prince, whose forces were rather superior, though undisciplined, attacked him sword in hand, near Prestonpans, about twelve miles from the capital, and such was the ferocity of a mode of fighting to which the English were unaccustomed, that the king's troops were effectually routed in less than ten minutes (Sept. 21). This victory, by which the king lost 500 men, gave the rebels great influence; and had the pretender taken advantage of the general consternation and marched directly for England, the consequence might have been fatal to freedom. But he was amused by the promise of succours which never came, and thus induced to remain in Edinburgh, to enjoy the triumphs of an unimportant victory, and to be treated as a monarch."

524. *Charles Edward penetrates to Derby, 1745.*—"While the prince was thus trifling away his time at Edinburgh (for, in dangerous enterprises, delay is but defeat), 6000 Dutch troops were brought over and dispatched northward under the command of general Wade. The duke of Cumberland soon after arrived from Flanders, and he was followed by

523. What number of officers did he bring with him? Where did he proclaim his father king of Great Britain? Where did he gain a victory over the king's forces, and by whom were they commanded? What want of judgment did he discover after this success?



another detachment of well-disciplined dragoons and infantry. Besides these, volunteers offered in every part of the kingdom; and every county exerted a vigorous spirit of indignation both against the ambition, the religion, and the allies of the young pretender. But the prince had been bred in a school that taught him maxims very different from those that then prevailed in England. He considered that the assertion of his right to the throne was a duty incumbent upon him, and the altering the constitution, and perhaps the religion of this country, an object of laudable ambition. Thus animated, he went forward with vigour, and having resolved on making an irruption into England, he entered the country by the western border, and invested Carlisle, which surrendered in less than three days (Nov. 15). Being still unopposed, and having received assurances from France that a considerable body of troops would be landed on the southern coasts to make a diversion in his favour; and having been also flattered with the hopes that he would be joined by a considerable number of malcontents as he passed forward, and that his army would increase on his march, he left a small garrison in Carlisle, advanced to Penrith, and continued his irruption till he came to Manchester, where he was joined by about 200 English, who formed into a regiment under the command of colonel Townly (Nov. 28). From thence he pursued his march to Derby, within a hundred miles of the capital (Dec. 4). Had he proceeded in his career with that expedition which he had hitherto used, he might have made himself master of the metropolis, where he would certainly have been joined by a considerable number of his well-wishers, who waited impatiently for his approach."

525. *The Rebels retreat Northward—Battle of Falkirk.*—"In this state of affairs, the king resolved to take the field in person. But he found safety from the discontents which now began to prevail in the pretender's army. In fact, he was but the nominal leader of his forces; as his generals, the chiefs of the highland clans, were, from their education, ignorant, and averse to subordination. They had, from the beginning, begun to embrace opposite systems of operation, and contend with each other for pre-eminence; but they seemed now unanimous in returning to their own country. Accordingly, on the 4th of December, they retreated from

524. What induced prince Charles to make an irruption into England? What English towns did he take?

525. In what did George II. find security? What was the character of the Highland chiefs? In what were they now unanimous? Relate the retreat of the rebels into Scotland.



Derby to Carlisle without loss, and from thence re-entered Scotland, and proceeded to Glasgow, from which city the rebels exacted severe contributions. The prince advanced from thence to Stirling, where he was joined by lord Lewis Gordon, at the head of some forces, which had been assembled in his absence. Other clans, to the number of 2000, came in likewise; and from some supplies of money which he had received from Spain, and from some skirmishes, in which he was successful against the royalists, his affairs began to wear a more promising aspect. Being joined by lord Drummond, he invested the castle of Stirling, commanded by general Blakeney, but the rebel forces being unused to sieges, consumed much time to no purpose. It was during this attempt, that general Hawley, who commanded a considerable body of forces near Edinburgh, undertook to raise the siege, and advanced towards the rebel army as far as Falkirk. After two days spent in mutual examining each other's strength, the rebels being ardent to engage, were led on in full spirits to attack the king's army. The pretender, who was in the front line, gave the signal to engage, and the first fire put Hawley's forces into confusion. The horse retreated with precipitation, and fell upon their own infantry; while the rebels following the blow, the greatest part of the royal army retired in confusion to Edinburgh, leaving the conquerors in possession of their tents, their artillery, and the field of battle (Jan. 17, 1746). Hitherto, the rebel army seemed not unprosperous, but here was an end of all their triumphs. The duke of Cumberland now put himself at the head of the troops at Edinburgh, which consisted of about 14,000 men. With these he advanced to Aberdeen, where he was joined by several of the Scots nobility, attached to the house of Hanover; and having revived the drooping spirits of his army, he resolved to find out the enemy, who retreated at his approach. After having refreshed his troops at Aberdeen for some time, he renewed his march, and in twelve days he came up to the banks of the deep and rapid river Spey. This was the place where the rebels might have disputed his passage, but they lost every advantage in disputing with each other. They seemed now totally void of all counsel and subordination, without conduct, and without unanimity. After a variety of contests among each other, they resolved to await their pursuers upon the plains of Culloden, a place about nine miles distant from Inverness, embosomed in hills, except on that side which was open to the sea."

525. Who gained the battle of Falkirk? Who assumed the command of the king's forces when they had retreated to Edinburgh?



526. *The Rout and Slaughter of Culloden, 1746.*—When the duke of Cumberland came up with the rebel army on the morning of the 16th of April, “he found it drawn up on the plain of Culloden, in order of battle, to the number of 8000 men, in three divisions, supplied with some pieces of artillery. The royal army was more numerous, and all preparations being made, the battle began about one o’clock in the afternoon; the cannon of the king’s army did dreadful execution among the rebels, while theirs was totally unserviceable. One of the great errors in all the pretender’s warlike measures was his subjecting wild and undisciplined troops to the forms of artful war, and thus repressing their native ardour, from which alone he could hope for success. After they had been kept in their ranks, and withstood the English fire for some time, they at length became impatient for closer engagement; and about 500 of them made an irruption upon the left wing of the enemy with their accustomed ferocity. The first line being disordered by this onset, two battalions advanced to support it, and galled the enemy with a terrible close discharge. At the same time the dragoons under Hawley, and the Argyleshire militia, pulling down a park-wall that guarded the flank of the enemy, and which they had but feebly defended, fell in among them, sword in hand, with great slaughter. In less than thirty minutes they were totally routed, and the field covered with their wounded and slain, to the number of 3000 men. The French troops on the left did not fire a shot, but stood inactive during the engagement, and afterwards surrendered themselves prisoners of war. An entire body of the clans marched off the field in order, while the rest were routed with great slaughter, and their leaders obliged with reluctance to retire. Civil war is in itself terrible, but more so when heightened by unnecessary cruelty. How guilty soever an enemy may be, it is the duty of a brave soldier to remember that he is only to fight an opposer, and not a suppliant. The victory was in every respect decisive, and humanity to the conquered would have rendered it glorious. But little mercy was shown here; the conquerors were seen to refuse quarter to the wounded, the unarmed, and the defenceless; some were slain who were only excited by curiosity to become spectators of the combat, and soldiers were seen to anticipate the base employment of the executioner. The duke immediately after the action ordered six-and-thirty deserters to be executed; the con-

526. Where did the duke of Cumberland bring the rebel army to an engagement? Relate the battle. What was the conduct of the victors?



querors spread terror wherever they came; and after a short space, the whole country round was one dreadful scene of plunder, slaughter, and desolation; justice was forgotten, and vengeance assumed the name."

527. *Romantic Escape of the Pretender, 1746-7.*—"In this manner were blasted all the hopes, and all the ambition, of the young adventurer; one short hour deprived him of imaginary thrones and sceptres, and reduced him from a nominal king to a distressed forlorn outcast, shunned by all mankind, except those who sought his destruction. To the good and the brave, subsequent distress often atones for former guilt; and while reason would speak for punishment, our hearts plead for mercy. Immediately after the engagement, he fled away with a captain of Fitz James's cavalry, and when their horses were fatigued, they both alighted, and separately sought for safety. He for some days wandered in this country, naturally wild, but now rendered more formidable by war, a wretched spectator of all those horrors which were the result of his ill-guided ambition. He sometimes found refuge in caves and cottages, without attendants, and dependent on the wretched natives, who could pity, but not relieve him. Sometimes he lay in forests, with one or two companions of his distress, continually pursued by the troops of the conqueror, as there was a reward of 30,000*l.* offered for taking him, dead or alive. Sheridan, an Irishman, was the person who kept most faithfully by him, and inspired him with courage to support such incredible hardships. He had occasion, in the course of his concealments, to trust his life to the fidelity of above 50 individuals, whose veneration for his family prevailed above their avarice. On one occasion, after walking from morning to night, he ventured to enter a house, the owner of which he well knew was attached to the opposite party. As he entered, he addressed the master of the house in the following manner:—"The son of your king comes to beg a little bread, and a few clothes. I know your present attachment to my adversaries, but I believe you have sufficient honour not to abuse my confidence, or to take advantage of my distressed situation. Take these rags, that have for some time been my only covering; you may probably restore them to me one day, when I shall be seated on the throne of Great Britain." The master of the house was touched with pity at his distress; he assisted him as far as he was able, and never divulged the secret. In this manner

527. In what situation was the pretender after the battle of Culloden? Who was his most faithful attendant? In what manner did he address one of his opponents?



he continued to wander among the frightful wilds of Glen-gary, for nearly six months, often hemmed round by his pursuers, but still rescued by some lucky accident from the impending danger. There are few of those who even wished his destruction, would choose to be the immediate actors in it, as it would subject them to the resentment of a numerous party. At length a privateer of St. Maloes, hired by his adherents, arrived in Lochnanach, in Moidart (Sept. 19), in which he embarked in the most wretched attire. He was clad in a short coat of black frieze, threadbare, over which was a common Highland plaid, girt round by a belt, from whence were suspended a pistol and a dagger. He had not been shifted for many weeks; his eyes were hollow, his visage wan, and his constitution greatly impaired by famine and fatigue. He was accompanied by Sullivan and Sheridan, two Irish adherents, who had shared all his calamities, together with Cameron of Lochiel, and his brother, and a few other exiles. They set sail for France; and, after having been chased by two English men-of-war, they arrived in safety at a place called Roseau, near Morlaix, in Bretagne (Oct. 10, 1746). Perhaps he would have found it more difficult to escape, had not the vigilance of his pursuers been relaxed by a report that he was already slain."

528. *Execution of Kilmarnock, Balmerino, Lovat, and others.*—"While the pretender was being pursued, the scaffolds and the gibbets were preparing for his adherents. Seventeen officers of the rebel army were hanged, drawn, and quartered at Kennington-common, in the neighbourhood of London. Their constancy in death gained more proselytes to their cause than even, perhaps, their victories would have obtained. Nine were executed in the same manner at Carlisle, and eleven at York. A few obtained pardons, and a considerable number of the common men were transported to the plantations in North America. The earls of Kilmarnock and of Cromartie, and the lord Balmerino, were tried by their peers, and found guilty. Cromartie was pardoned, but the other two were beheaded on Tower-hill. Kilmarnock, either convinced of his errors, or flattered to the last with the hopes of pardon, declared a consciousness of his crimes, and professed his repentance. But very different was the behaviour of Balmerino, who gloried in the cause for which he fell. When his fellow-sufferer was commanded to bid God bless

527. By what means did the pretender escape? and what was his appearance? By whom was he accompanied?

528. What cruelty was displayed after the victory? Who were beheaded on Tower-hill?



king George, which he did with a faint voice, Balmerino still avowed his principles, and cried out aloud, 'God bless king James!' Mr. Radcliffe, brother to the late earl of Derwentwater, who was beheaded in the former reign, being taken on board a ship as he was coming to reinforce the pretender's army, and the identity of his person being proved, he was sentenced upon a former conviction, and suffered his fate upon Tower-hill with tranquillity and resolution. Lord Lovat was tried and found guilty some time after; he died with great intrepidity, but his sufferings did but very little honour to his cause. Thus ended the last effort of the family of the Stuarts for re-ascending the throne; dictated by youth and presumption, and conducted without art or resolution."

529. *Hereditary Jurisdictions abolished in Scotland, 1748*.—"Immediately after the rebellion was suppressed, and the tumult of terror and transport was subsided, the legislature undertook to establish several regulations in Scotland, which were equally conducive to the happiness of its people, and the tranquillity of the United Kingdom. The Highlanders had till this time continued to wear the old military dress of their ancestors, and never went without arms. In consequence of this, they considered themselves as a body of people distinct from the rest of the nation, and were ready, upon the shortest notice, to second the insurrections of their chiefs. But their habits were now reformed by an act of the legislature, and they were compelled to wear clothes of the common fashion. But what contributed still more to their real felicity was the abolition of that hereditary jurisdiction exercised over them, by their chiefs, which gave every subject in that part of the kingdom a participation of the common liberty." These jurisdictions amounted to upwards of a hundred, and consisted of hereditary sheriffships, stewartries, constabularies, but principally of royalties, baileries of royalty, royal baileries, with some clerkships for life. One of the most important was the office of lord justice general, and the lordship of Argyle and the isles, both hereditary in the dukes of Argyll. Among the peculiarities of these jurisdictions, it will be here sufficient to state that some of their possessors had absolute power within their bounds—to punish under frivolous pretences by heavy fines, by scourge or incarceration in dungeons, or even by death, without being liable to the interference of the common law.

530. *Foreign War in 1746-7*.—"While England was engaged in commotion at home, the flames of war still continued to rage upon the Continent with increasing violence. The French arms were crowned with repeated success;" and



almost the whole Netherlands were reduced under their dominion, together with many of the strong barrier towns which the Dutch had been put in possession of by the victories of Marlborough. In 1747, after having failed in his attempt to restore peace, Louis XV. opened the campaign in Flanders with an army of 150,000 men. The allies, under the duke of Cumberland, gave battle to the French under marshal Saxe at Val, on his way to invest Maestricht; but the British not being properly supported by the Dutch and Austrians, the advantage remained with the French; which made Louis say that the English *paid all*, and *fought all*. Bergen-op-Zoom, the strongest fortification in Dutch Brabant, was immediately after besieged and carried by assault, which reduced the Dutch to a state of desperation. "However, these victories gained by the French were counter-balanced with almost equal disappointments. In Italy, marshal Bellisle's brother, attempting to penetrate at the head of 34,000 men into Piedmont, was routed, and himself slain. An unsuccessful fleet was sent out for the recovery of Cape Breton. Two more were fitted out, the one to make a descent upon the British colonies in America, and the other to carry on the operations in the East Indies; but these were attacked by Anson and Warren, and nine of their ships taken. Soon after this, commodore Fox, with six ships of war, took above forty French ships richly laden from St. Domingo; and this loss was soon after followed by another defeat, which the French fleet sustained from admiral Hawke, in which seven sail of the line and several frigates were taken. In this manner victory, defeat, negotiation, treachery, and rebellion, succeeded each other rapidly for some years, till all sides began to think themselves growing more feeble, and gaining no solid advantage. The English ministry, in particular, finding themselves unable to manage a parliament soured by frequent defeats, and now beginning to be disgusted with continental connections, were very ready to accede. A negotiation was therefore resolved upon; and the contending powers agreed to come to a congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, where the earl of Sandwich and Sir Thomas Robinson assisted as plenipotentiaries from the king of Great Britain."

531. *Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1748.*—"In April the negotiations at Aix-la-Chapelle were opened upon the preliminary conditions of restoring all conquests made during the war. From thence great hopes were expected of conditions both favourable and honourable to the English; but the treaty still remains a lasting mark of precipitate counsels and English disgrace. By this it was agreed, that all prisoners on



each side should be mutually restored, and all conquests given up. That the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, should be ceded to Don Philip, heir apparent to the Spanish throne, and to his heirs; but in case of his succeeding to the crown of Spain, then these dominions should revert to the house of Austria. It was confirmed that the fortifications of Dunkirk towards the sea should be demolished; that the English ships annually sent with slaves to the coast of New Spain, should have this privilege continued for four years; that the king of Prussia should be confirmed in the possession of Silesia, which he had lately conquered; that the queen of Hungary should be secured in her patrimonial dominions; and that neither the pretender, nor any of his descendants, should be permitted to reside in the territories of the contracting parties. But one article of the peace was more displeasing and afflictive to the English than all the rest. It was stipulated, that the king of Great Britain should, immediately after the ratification of this treaty, send two persons of rank and distinction to France, as hostages, until restitution should be made of Cape Breton and all other conquests which England had made during the war. This was a mortifying clause; but to add to the general error of the negotiation, no mention was made of the searching the vessels of England in the American seas, upon which the war was originally begun. The limits of their respective possessions in North America were not ascertained; nor did they receive any equivalent for those forts which they restored to the enemy. The treaty of Utrecht had long been the object of reproach to those by whom it was made; but, with all its faults, the treaty now concluded was by far more despicable and erroneous. Yet such was the spirit of the times, that the treaty of Utrecht was branded with universal contempt, and the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was extolled with the highest strains of praise. But the people were wearied with repeated disgrace, and only expecting an accumulation of misfortunes by continuing the war, they were glad of any peace that promised a pause to their disappointments." The treaty was definitely signed at Aix-la-Chapelle in October, and soon after ratified by the different powers.

532. *The Game Laws*.—"As Europe now enjoyed tranquility, the people of England expected, and the ministry

531. What hopes were entertained from the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle? What was the result? What were its conditions? What article was very displeasing to the English? What was another error in the negotiation? What opinion was held of this treaty?



promised them, a return of all the advantages of peace. In order to please the populace, for the Pelham ministry had the art always to keep the people in good humour, a magnificent firework was played off; and the spectators could never be brought to think that a bad treaty, which was celebrated with such magnificence" (Nov. 23). Whatever ministers might profess or promise, they at no time showed a disposition to legislate for the benefit of the commonalty. One of their first acts after the peace was to make regulations for the better preservation of game. "By this, none but men already possessed of a fee-simple estate of 100*l.* a year, or an estate for life of 150*l.* a year, were allowed the privilege of carrying a gun, or destroying game, though even upon the grounds which he himself rented and paid for. This law was of no service to the community; it totally damped all that martial ardour among the lower orders of mankind, by preventing their handling those arms, which might one day be necessary to defend their country. It also defeated its own end of preserving the game; for the farmers, abridged of the power of seizing game, never permitted it to come to maturity." The spirit of English legislation is abundantly exhibited in the great number of enactments for the preservation of game, in which, by the common law, there is no property, that persons of quality and distinction might not be deprived of their recreations and amusements; while it may be doubted whether a single statute was ever enacted to preserve those of the commonalty.

533. *Colony of Halifax founded, 1749.*—Another measure was likewise promoted, which showed the little consideration entertained by the ministry and the parliament for those of the lower classes, who had fought for their country. "This was the encouraging those who had been discharged the army or navy, to become settlers in a new colony in North America, in the province of Nova Scotia. To this retreat it was thought the waste of an exuberant nation might well be drained off; and those bold spirits kept in employment at a distance, who might be dangerous, if suffered to continue in idleness at home. Nova Scotia was a place where men might be imprisoned, but not maintained; it was cold, barren, and incapable of successful cultivation." In order to induce the disbanded men to emigrate, every private soldier and sailor was promised fifty acres of land, and an additional ten acres for every member of his family who should accompany him. To the officers greater portions were promised according to

532. Why was the fire-work played off? What is said of game laws? What are the game-laws an illustration of?



their rank. Besides this, the government undertook to convey, free of expense, all colonists; to furnish them with arms, ammunition, instruments of husbandry, &c.; and to maintain them during twelve months. This offer was accepted by 4000 adventurers, who, with their families, sailed under the command of colonel Cornwallis. They arrived at the place of their destination in June, 1749, and located themselves at an eligible place, which they called Halifax, after the earl who had suggested the plan. The rigour of the climate, and the barrenness of the surrounding country, "soon induced such as were permitted to remove southward to the milder climates, where they were invited by an untenanted and fertile soil. Thus did the nation ungratefully send off her hardy veterans to perish on inhospitable shores, and this they were taught to believe would extend their dominions."

534. *New obstructive Marriage Law, 1753.*—A law was soon after enacted which justly created wide-spread dissatisfaction. "This was a law to make distinctions among the people, and to lay a line between the rich and the poor that seemed impassable. This was the so-called act for the better preventing clandestine marriages, and for the more public solemnisation of that ceremony. The grievance complained of and which this law was calculated to redress, was, that the sons and daughters of opulent families were often seduced into marriage before they had acquired sufficient experience in life to be sensible of the disparity of the match. This statute, therefore, enacted that the bans of marriage should be regularly published three successive Sundays in the church of the parish where both parties had resided for one month, at least, before the ceremony. It declared, that any marriage solemnised without this previous publication, or a licence obtained from the bishop's court, should be void, and that the person who solemnised it should be transported for seven years. This act was at that time thought replete with consequences injurious to society; and experience has confirmed the truth of many of those objections.\* Infamous men

533. From what motive was the new colony in Nova Scotia furnished with inhabitants? Was it generous to send the disbanded warriors to an inhospitable country?

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\* Although an outcry has been raised against the irreverence of the Scotch law of marriage, which merely requires the consent of parties before witnesses with precedent or subsequent cohabitation, its moral advantages are so remarkable that trials for seduction or breach of promise of marriage are of rare occurrence in Scotland. The Scotch law gives the amplest protection to the female; while the English law undoubtedly favours seduction by imposing impediments to marriage, and thereby increases immorality and female wretchedness, especially among the commonalty.



have made a practice of seducing young women, ignorant of the law, by pretending a marriage which they knew to be illegal, and consequently no longer binding. The poor, by being prevented from making alliances with the rich, have left wealth to flow in its ancient channels, and thus to accumulate, contrary to the interests of the State. It has been found to impede marriage, by clogging it with unnecessary ceremonies. Some have affirmed that lewdness and debauchery have become more frequent since the enacting this law, and it is believed that the numbers of the people are upon the decline."

535. *Continuance of War in India and America, 1748-55.*—"The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which some asserted would serve for a bond of permanent amity, was, properly speaking, but a temporary truce; a cessation from hostilities, which both sides were unable to continue. Though the war between England and France was actually hushed up in Europe, yet in the East and West Indies it still went forward with diminished vehemence,—both sides still willing to offend, still offending, and yet both complaining of the infraction. It was, however, on account of the colony at Halifax that the English and French revived the war, which soon after spread with such terrible devastation over every part of the globe. The French had been the first cultivators of Nova Scotia, and by great industry, and long perseverance, had rendered the soil, naturally barren, somewhat more fertile, and capable of sustaining nature with some assistance from Europe. This country, however, had frequently changed masters, until at length the English were settled in the possession, and acknowledged as the rightful owners by the treaty of Utrecht. The possession of this country was reckoned necessary to defend the English colonies to the north, and to preserve their superiority in the fisheries in that part of the world. The French, however, who had long been settled in the back parts of the country, resolved to use every method to dispossess the new comers, and spirited up the native Indians bordering upon the deserts of Nova Scotia to more open hostilities. This fierce and savage people had looked from the first with jealousy upon the colonists at Halifax; and they considered the vicinity of the English as an encroachment upon their native possessions. The French, who were neighbours in like manner, and who were still impressed with national animosity, fomented these suspicions in the natives,

535. Who had been the first cultivators of Nova Scotia? Who had been acknowledged rightful owners of this country? What method did the French use to dispossess the English?



and represented the English (and with regard to this colony the representation might be true) as enterprising and severe. Commissaries were therefore appointed to meet at Paris, to compromise these disputes; but these conferences were rendered abortive by the cavillings of men who could not be supposed to understand the subject in debate. Another source of dispute also began to be seen in the same part of the world, and promised similar uneasiness. The French pretending first to have discovered the mouth of the river Mississippi, claimed the whole adjacent country towards New Mexico on the east, and quite to the Apalachian mountains on the west. In order to assert their claims, as they found several English, who had settled beyond these mountains from motives of commerce, and also invited by the natural beauties of the country, they dispossessed them of their new settlements, and built such forts as would command the whole country round about. It was now, therefore, seen that their intention was to surround the English colonies, which lay along the shore, by taking possession of the internal parts of the country that lay on the back of our settlements; and thus, being in possession already of the northern and southern parts of that great continent, to hem the English in on every side, and secure to themselves all trade with the natives of the internal part of the country. The English, therefore, justly apprehended, that if the French united their northern colonies, which were traded into by the river St. Lawrence, to their southern, which were accessible by the river Mississippi, that then they must in a short time become masters of the whole country." These considerations induced the English ministry to commence a very vigorous exertion in defence of their colonies, who refused to defend themselves. Four operations were undertaken in America at the same time. Of these, one was commanded by colonel Monckton, who had orders to drive the French from the encroachments upon the province of Nova Scotia. The second, more to the south, was directed against Crown Point, under the command of general Johnson. The third, under the conduct of general Shirley, was destined to Niagara, to secure the forts on that river; and the fourth was farther southward still, against Fort Du Quesne, at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers, under general Braddock. Monckton was successful; Johnson also was victorious, though he failed in taking Fort Edward on Lake George, against which he was sent: Shirley was thought to have lost the season for opera-

535. What other conduct of the French contributed to hasten the war? What operations were undertaken by the English?



tion by delay : Braddock was vigorous and active," until, falling into an ambuscade, he was slaughtered with more than half of his army; and the artillery, ammunition, baggage, &c., fell into the hands of the enemy (July 9, 1755).

536. *Rise of the British Power in India—Robert Clive, 1751–3.*—The period of the Seven Years' War in Europe was also the period of the establishment of the British Empire in India. About the beginning of the eighteenth century, the empire of Tamerlane had fallen into decay, while the petty governors, under the title of soubhahs and nawâbs or nabobs assumed an independence in their several districts, under the merely nominal sovereignty of the great mogul at Delhi. The French and the English saw an opening in this state of things, not only for an extension of commercial enterprise, but also for the acquisition of territorial dominion. France set the example; and appears to have wanted only the ability to avail herself of means which were actually in her possession, to secure the dominion of India. In 1748 Duplex ruled in India, from the river Kistnah to Cape Comorin, a tract of country as large as France, with the command of seven thousand cavalry, unlimited pecuniary resources, and the absolute control over thirty millions of people. But France, at this time under the feeble reign of Louis XV., understood neither her own interests nor the abilities of her enterprising officer; and the golden opportunity was lost for ever. At this time arose Robert Clive, a name that will continue famous in Anglo-Indian history. He entered the Company's service in a civil capacity in 1744, but finding his talents more adapted for war, he joined the troops as a volunteer in 1747. His courage, which is all that subordinate officers can at first show, soon became remarkable; but his conduct, expedition, and military skill, soon after became so conspicuous, as to raise him to the first rank in the army. The pacification of Aix-la-Chapelle did not wholly suspend the war in India between the English and the French. It was carried on under the colour of lending assistance to the contending chiefs of the country, but the allies soon became the principals in the contention. In 1751 the nabob of Arcot implored the assistance of the English against the French under Duplex. Clive, who now obtained a captain's commission, undertook to conduct from Fort St. David 210 Europeans and 500 sepoy to the city of Arcot. Such was the resolution, secrecy, and despatch, with

536. Over what extent of India did the French rule in 1748? What was the supreme ruler of India called at that time? Was he an actual or merely nominal emperor? What were the chiefs called?



which captain Clive conducted this enterprise, that the enemy knew nothing of his motions until he was in possession of the capital, which he took without opposition. The inhabitants expecting to be plundered, offered him a large sum to spare their city; but he refused the proffered ransom, and proclaimed that those who were willing to remain should be protected from insult and injury, and the rest have leave to retire with all their effects, except provisions, for which he promised to pay the full value. The town was soon after invested by rajah Saib, son of Chunda Saib, at the head of a numerous army: and the operations of the siege were conducted by French engineers. Though their approaches were retarded by the resolute sallies of the English, they at length effected two breaches, supposed to be practicable; and on the 14th of October they made a general assault. Clive repulsed the assailants in every quarter with great loss, and obliged the enemy to raise the siege. Not contented with this noble defence, he was no sooner reinforced than he marched in pursuit of the enemy, whom he overtook in the plains of Aranie, and after an obstinate conflict, obtained a complete victory. The forts of Timery, Caujeveram, and Aranie, surrendered to the terror of his name, and he returned to Fort St. David in triumph. In the beginning of 1752 Clive marched with a small detachment to Madras, where he was joined by a reinforcement from Bengal, the whole number not exceeding 300 Europeans, and a body of the natives. When he arrived at Koveripauk, about fifteen miles from Arcot, he found the French and Indians, consisting of 1500 sepoy, 1700 horse, and 150 Europeans, with eight pieces of cannon. Though they were advantageously posted and entrenched, Clive advanced against them with his usual intrepidity; but the victory remained doubtful until he sent a detachment to fall on the rear of the French battery. This attack was executed with great resolution, while the English in front entered the entrenchments with fixed bayonets. This double onset so disconcerted the enemy that they soon gave way, and saved themselves by flight under cover of the darkness. The French, to a man, threw down their arms, and surrendered themselves prisoners of war; and all the cannon and baggage fell into the hands of the victor. The province of Arcot being thus cleared, Clive returned to Fort St. David, where he found major Laurence just returned from England, to take the command of the Company's troops. In March, 1753, major Laurence detached Clive, with 400 European soldiers, a few Mahratta horse, and a body of Sepoys, to cut off the



enemy's retreat to Pondicherry. In the course of this expedition he first obliged Chunda Saib to throw a body of troops into a strongly-fortified pagoda upon the river Koleroon, and afterwards forced them to surrender at discretion. He next marched against the French commander D'Auteuil, whom he found entrenched in a village, from whence he drove him with precipitation, and made himself master of the French cannon. The enemy attempted to save themselves in a neighbouring fort; but the gates being shut against them by the governor, who was apprehensive that they would be followed pell-mell by the English, captain Clive attacked them with great fury; but his humanity being shocked at the carnage, he sent a flag of truce with terms of capitulation, which were readily accepted. These articles required that D'Auteuil and three other officers should remain prisoners on parole for one year; that the garrison should be exchanged, and that the money and stores should be delivered to the nabob whom the English supported. After these services, captain Clive returned to England.

537. *Expulsion from Bengal—Black-hole of Calcutta, 1756.* —“The French, discouraged by these misfortunes, and sensible of their own inferiority in India, sent over a commissary to Europe to restore peace. A convention between the two companies was accordingly concluded, importing, that the territories taken on either side since the conclusion of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle should be mutually restored; that the nabobs advanced by the influence of either party should be acknowledged by both; and that for the future neither should interfere in the differences that should arise between the princes of the country. But compacts made between trading companies can never be of long continuance, when advantage is opposed to good faith. In a few months both sides renewed their operations, no longer under the name of auxiliaries, but as rivals in arms, in government, and in commerce. What the motives to this infraction were are not sufficiently known; but certain it is that the most powerful native prince, Surajud-Dowlah, the subahdar of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, declared war against the English from motives of personal resentment, and, levying an army of 50,000 men, laid siege to Calcutta, then one of the principal British forts; but which was not in a state of strength to defend itself even against barbarians. The fort was taken; and the garrison, to the number of an hundred and forty-six persons, were made prisoners. These were all crowded together into a

537. By whom was Calcutta taken? Why are compacts between trading companies not kept? Describe the fate of the garrison of Calcutta.



narrow prison, called the Black-hole, of about eighteen feet square, and receiving air only by two small iron windows to the west, which by no means afforded a sufficient circulation. It is terrible to reflect on the situation of these unfortunate men, shut up in this narrow place, in the burning climate of the East, and suffocating each other. Their first efforts, upon perceiving the effects of their horrid confinement, were to break open the door of the prison: but as it opened inward, they soon found that impossible. They next endeavoured to excite the compassion, or the avidity of the guard, by offering him a large sum of money for his assistance in removing them to separate prisons; but with this he was not able to comply, as the viceroy was asleep, and no person dared to disturb him. They were now, therefore, left to die without hopes of relief; and the whole prison was filled with groans, shrieks, contest, and despair. This turbulence, however, soon after sunk into a calm, still more hideous; their efforts of strength and courage were over, and an expiring languor succeeded. In the morning, when the keepers came to visit the prison, all was horror, silence, and desolation. Of an hundred and forty-six who had entered alive, twenty-three only survived, and of these the greatest part died of putrid fever upon being set free" (June 21, 1756).

538. *Clive again in India—Victory of Plassey, 1756-7.*—The affairs of the English in Bengal seemed now entirely ruined. But the fortune of Clive, who returned in January, 1756, as governor of St. David, with the right of succession to the government of Madras, "backed by the activity of an English fleet under admiral Watson, again turned the scale in their favour (1756). Among those who now felt the power of the English was the famous Tullagee Angria, a piratical prince, who had long infested the Indian Ocean, and made the princes on the coast his tributaries. He maintained a large number of galleys, and with these he attacked the largest ships, almost always with success. As the Company had been greatly harassed by his depredations, they resolved to attack him in his own fortress. In pursuance of this resolution, admiral Watson and colonel Clive sailed into his harbour of Geriah; and though they sustained a warm fire as they entered, yet they soon threw all his fleet into flames, and obliged his fort to surrender at discretion. From this conquest Clive proceeded to take revenge for the cruelty practised upon the English at Calcutta; and arrived at Balasore

537. How many were suffocated in the Black-hole?

538. When was Calcutta retaken? What afterwards took place in the territory of Bengal?



about the beginning of December, 1756. He met with little opposition either to the fleet or the army, till they came before Calcutta, which seemed resolved to stand a regular siege. But in less than two hours after the admiral arrived before the town with two ships, he obliged the enemy to abandon their fortifications (Jan. 2, 1757). By these means the English took possession of the two strongest settlements on the banks of the Ganges; but that of Geriah they demolished to the ground. Hoogly, a city of great trade, was soon after reduced with as little difficulty. The Subahdar Surajud-Dowlah then assembled an army of 10,000 horse and 15,000 foot, and declared his firm resolution of expelling the English from all their settlements in India. Upon the first intelligence of his approach, Clive obtained a reinforcement of men from the admiral's ships, then advanced with his little army and attacked the enemy near Calcutta; and though the numbers were very disproportioned, victory soon declared in favour of the English. This, as well as several other victories gained by this commander, teach us no longer to wonder at those conquests which were gained formerly by European troops over this weak and effeminate people. All the heroism of a Cyrus or an Alexander, in this view, will sink in our esteem, and no longer continue the object of admiration. Victories so easily acquired, soon rendered the viceroy of Bengal contemptible to his subjects. His cowardice now rendered him despicable, and his former cruelty odious. A conspiracy, therefore, was projected against him by Jaffier Ali Khan, his prime minister; and the English having private intimations of the design, they resolved to second it with all their endeavours. Accordingly, Clive, knowing that he had a friend in the enemy's camp, marched forward, and soon came up with the viceroy at Plassey, who had by this time recruited his army" to 15,000 horse and nearly 30,000 infantry, with about forty pieces of heavy cannon conducted and managed by French gunners. At day-break on the 26th of June, they began to cannonade the English camp, but a severe shower falling at noon they withdrew their artillery. Clive seized this opportunity to storm an angle of their camp, covered with a double breast-work, together with an eminence which they occupied. At the beginning of this attack, some of their chiefs being slain, the men were so dispirited that they soon gave way; but still Jaffier Ali, who commanded their left wing, forbore to declare himself. After a short contest, the enemy were put to flight, the nabob's camp, baggage, and fifty pieces of cannon were taken, and a most



complete victory obtained. The colonel pursuing his advantage, marched to Muxadavad, the capital of the province, and was there joined by Ali Khan and the malcontents. It being before concerted that this nobleman should be invested with the dignity of nabob, "he was now solemnly proclaimed viceroy of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, in the room of the former nabob, who was soon after put to death by his perfidious successor." By this alliance, and the reduction of Chandernagore, the French were entirely excluded from the commerce of Bengal and its dependencies; the trade of the English Company was restored, and increased beyond their most sanguine hopes. "Thus in one campaign, which was carried on by the activity of Clive, and seconded by the operations of admirals Watson and Pococke, the English became possessed of a territory superior in wealth, fertility, extent, and the number of its inhabitants, to any part of Europe. Above two millions sterling were paid to the Company and the survivors of the imprisonment at Calcutta; the soldiers and seamen shared 600,000*l.*, and the English power became irresistible in India."

539. *Invasion threatened—Minorca captured by the French, 1756.*—"All negotiation between England and France for a complete cessation from war being at an end, both nations made vigorous preparations, both to annoy and to intimidate each other. In this the French were most successful. Their first attempt was by threat of a formidable invasion. Several bodies of their troops were for some time sent down to the coasts that lay opposite the British shores, and were daily instructed in the discipline of embarking and re-landing from flat-bottomed boats, which were made in great numbers for that expedition. Whether these preparations were intended for actual descent, or made only to terrify the English, is uncertain, but it is manifest that they answered the latter intent entirely. The people of England saw themselves exposed, without arms, leaders, or discipline, to the designs of their enemies, governed by a ministry that was timid, unpopular, and divided among themselves. It was in this exigence that the ministry applied to the Dutch for 6000 men, which they were obliged to furnish by treaty in case of invasion; but the Dutch alleged that their treaty was to supply troops in case of an actual, and not a threatened invasion. The ministry, disappointed of this assistance, looked round the Continent to find where they might at any rate make a demand. The aid of a

538. Who did Clive make viceroy of Bengal?

539. Did the French really intend to invade England? How did the ministers act?



body of Hessians and Hanoverians, amounting to about 10,000 men, was to be purchased; and these the ministry brought over into England to protect about as many millions of Englishmen." This was the first time that foreign mercenaries had ever been introduced into England, and it provoked contemptuous commentaries throughout the whole of Europe. "At home, the ministry was reviled for having reduced the nation to such a disgraceful position. The people considered themselves as no way reduced to the necessity of borrowing such feeble aid. They only demanded a vigorous exertion of their own internal strength, and feared no force that could be led to invade them. These dissensions among the English gave the French an opportunity of carrying on their designs in another quarter; and while the ministry were employed in guarding against the neighbouring terrors, they were attacked where they expected no danger." At the end of 1755 it became known that the French were making considerable naval preparations at Toulon, and to cover their real design, it was announced that it was intended to make a descent upon England. In the beginning of 1756, the British ministry received repeated information that the Toulon squadron was ready to put to sea; and that strong bodies of troops were on their march to be embarked. Universal report also particularised Minorca as the point of attack. The island of Minorca had been taken from the Spaniards in the reign of queen Anne, and secured to England by repeated treaties; but the ministry, at this time being blinded by domestic terrors, had neglected to take sufficient precautions for its defence, so that the garrison was weak, and no way fitted to stand a vigorous siege. On the 17th of April, the French landed 16,000 men near the fortification of St. Philip's, which was reckoned one of the strongest in Europe, and was then commanded by general Blakeney, who was brave indeed, but rather superannuated. The siege was carried on with great vigour, and for some time as obstinately defended on the side of the English, but the place was at length obliged to surrender, when the garrison was permitted, for its valiant defence, to march out with all the honours of war (June 29, 1756).

540. *Byng's Action off Minorca*.—Notwithstanding the precise information obtained, and the repeated remonstrances of general Blakeney, the acting governor, that from the weakness of the garrison of Fort St. Philip it would be impos-

539. Was the bringing in foreign mercenaries a popular measure? Were the ministers apprised of the French attack on Minorca? Why did they not send out reinforcements? With what force did the French land?



sible to withstand the formidable force preparing to attack him, these remonstrances were unheeded by the ministry, and they did not even order the officers then in England belonging to the garrison to return to their stations, until the French were ready to make a descent upon the island. This intelligence at length awakened the ministry as if from a sleep, when admiral Byng was appointed to command an expedition intended for the relief of St. Philip. The force assigned to him was unequal to the service: it consisted of only ten ships of the line, poorly manned, and unprovided with either hospital or fire-ship. This conduct on the part of the admiralty was the more remarkable, as there were, exclusive of his squadron, 17 ships of the line and 13 frigates ready for sea, besides 11 sail of the line and 19 frigates nearly equipped. It appeared as if it had been determined to send him out with an inferior force. He was an officer by no means popular, he was a strict disciplinarian, and of a haughty manner; but no one ever accused him of being deficient in personal spirit. The English fleet did not arrive at Gibraltar until the 2nd of May. Byng was there informed that the French armament, commanded by M. de la Galissoniere, consisting of 13 ships of the line with a great number of transports, having on board 16,000 land forces, sailed from Toulon on the 10th of April, and seven days after made a descent on the island of Minorca. This intelligence the admiral dispatched to the lords of the admiralty on the 4th of May, and in his letter expressed his belief that he should be unable to relieve St. Philip. At Gibraltar, Byng was reinforced with a ship of 60 guns, one of 50 guns, two frigates, and a sloop, without which addition he would have been unable to face the French fleet, every ship of which was in the most perfect state of equipment. The English fleet sailed from Gibraltar on the 8th of May, but unfortunately the passage was so retarded by contrary winds and calms, that it did not make Minorca until the 18th. On the following day the enemy were sighted, and every effort failed to bring them to action. On the morning of the 20th the weather was so extremely hazy that the French fleet could not be seen; but clearing up towards noon, they were again discovered; and about two in the afternoon both fleets partially engaged, the enemy edging away constantly, and, as they outsailed the English fleet, they never would permit it to close with them. At last,

540. Who was sent to the relief of Minorca? What was the amount of the naval force? What of the military? Why was Byng unable to bring the French to action?



when Galissioniere observed that the English fleet was gaining upon him, he grew sick of the action, and about six o'clock in the evening bore away with his whole squadron. The English fleet gave chase, but the superior sailing of the enemy prevented their being overtaken. On inquiry next morning into the state of the squadron, it was found that the Captain, Intrepid, and Defiance, were so much damaged in their masts and rigging, as to be unfit to keep the sea with any degree of safety; and also that the crews in general were sickly; many killed and wounded, and without any vessel which could be converted into an hospital. Under these circumstances the admiral called a council of war, which included general Stuart, lord Effingham, lord Bertie, and colonel Cornwallis. The council unanimously determined that the relief of St. Philip was impracticable,\* and that, considering the disabled condition of the fleet, and the danger which threatened Gibraltar, it should sail thither to refit, and to be at hand to protect that fortress. In consequence of these resolutions, the fleet steered for Gibraltar, and there anchored on the 19th of June, 1756.

541. *Byng's Condemnation and Execution.*—"Nothing could exceed the national indignation upon being informed of Byng's failure. The ministry were not averse to throwing from themselves the blame of those measures which were attended with such indifferent success, and they secretly fanned the flame. Orders, accordingly, were soon sent out for putting admiral Byng under an arrest, and for sending him to England. Upon his arrival, he was committed to close custody in Greenwich hospital, and arts were used to inflame the populace against him, who want no incentives to injure and condemn their superiors. Several addresses were sent up from different counties, demanding justice on the delinquent, which the ministry were willing to second. He was soon after tried by a court-martial in the harbour of Portsmouth, where, after a trial, which continued several days, his judges were agreed that he had not done his utmost during the engagement to destroy the enemy, and therefore they adjudged him to suffer death by the twelfth article of war.† At the same time,

540. Why did Byng return to Gibraltar?

541. Why did the king and the ministers encourage a clamour against admiral Byng? What treatment did Byng experience? What was the result of the court-martial?

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\* General Blakeney subsequently bore testimony to the correctness of this statement See *Lord Orford's Memoirs*, *passim*.

† Article 12.—Every person in the fleet, who, through cowardice, negligence, or dis-



however, they recommended him as an object of mercy, as they considered his conduct rather as the effects of error, than of cowardice. By this sentence they expected to satisfy at once the resentment of the nation, and yet screen themselves from conscious severity. The government was resolved upon showing him no mercy; the parliament was applied to in his favour; but they found no circumstances in his conduct that could invalidate the former sentence. Being thus abandoned to his fate, he maintained to the last a degree of fortitude and serenity, that no way betrayed any timidity or cowardice. On the day fixed for his execution, which was on board a man-of-war in the harbour of Portsmouth, he advanced from the cabin, where he had been imprisoned, upon deck, the place appointed for him to suffer. After delivering a paper, containing the strongest assertions of his innocence, he came forward to the place where he was to kneel down, and for some time persisted in not covering his face; but his friends representing that his looks would possibly intimidate the soldiers who were to shoot him, and prevent their taking proper aim, he had his eyes bound with an handkerchief; and then giving the signal for the soldiers to fire, he was killed instantaneously" (March 14, 1757). In defence of admiral Byng it has been observed with considerable justice, that it was evident the French admiral had determined to avoid a general action, as his fleet was not so superior as to give him more than a doubtful chance of victory. He confined himself to attempts to disable the English ships in their masts and rigging, and in this he succeeded by the superior sailing of his squadron. The French admiral had no object to gain by risking the safety of his fleet. He had landed the army which he had been appointed to convey to Minorca upwards of a month before; he knew that no reinforcements which the English admiral had it in his power to land would be of any avail in the siege which was then carrying on. Byng was accused of not having succoured Fort St. Philip. It must be admitted that he beat the enemy and obliged them to bear away; and, if he had had reinforcements on board, he could easily have landed them. But what was

541. Did Byng's sentence appear to be just? Relate the manner of his execution.

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affection, shall, in time of action, withdraw, or keep back, or not come into the fight or engagement, or shall not do his utmost to take or destroy every ship which it shall be his duty to engage, and to assist and relieve all and every of his majesty's ships, or those of his allies, which it shall be his duty to assist or relieve, every such person so offending and being convicted thereof by the sentence of a court-martial, shall suffer death,



the amount of these succours?—about thirty or forty officers, the greater part of them subalterns only, and about one hundred recruits!

542. *Alliance of England and Prussia against France and Austria.*—“ Being now masters of Minorca, the French were willing to second their blow by an attack upon a country, which they were sensible the king of England valued still more. Being convinced that they could not hold their colonies against such a superiority as the English were possessed of at sea, they made no scruple of declaring that they would revenge all injuries sustained in their colonies upon the king of England’s territories in Germany; a threat which they believed would alarm the English ministry. In these hopes they were not much disappointed. The court of London, eager to procure the security of Hanover, entered into a very expensive treaty with the court of Russia, by which it was stipulated that 50,000 Russians should be ready to act in the English service in case Hanover should be invaded; and for this the czarina Elizabeth was to receive 100,000*l.* a year, to be paid in advance. This treaty was considered as a master-stroke of politics by the English ministry, but it soon appeared to be as nugatory as it was expensive. Frederick II. of Prussia had long considered himself as guardian of the interests of Germany, and was startled at a treaty which threatened to deluge the empire with an army of barbarians. He, therefore, took the first opportunity to declare that he would not suffer any foreign forces to enter the empire, either as auxiliaries, or as principals. This consummate politician had been already apprised of a secret negotiation between the Russians and the Austrians, by which the former were to enter the empire, and strip him of his late conquests of Silesia. Thus England was but the dupe of Russian politics; she paid them a large subsidy for entering the empire, which they had already determined to perform without her commands. George II. now saw himself in the situation he most dreaded. His native dominions were now exposed to the resentment not only of France, but of Prussia; and either of these was powerful enough to overrun and ravage his electorate, while the Russian auxiliaries were at too great a distance to lend him the smallest relief. Treaties were once more set on foot in hopes of turning Frederic’s resentment another way. All that George II. wished for was to keep a foreign enemy from invading Germany, and this the king of Prussia professed to desire with equal ardour. From this similitude of intention these two monarchs soon concluded a treaty to

542. What alliances were now made among the European powers?



assist each other (Jan. 26, 1756). Both powers hoped great advantages from this alliance. It kept back the Russians, whom Frederic dreaded, and gave him hopes of punishing Austria, whom he long suspected. As for France he counted upon that as a natural ally, which, from its long and hereditary enmity with the Austrians, would ever continue steadfast in his interests. On the other side, George II. procured a near and powerful ally, which he supposed the French would not venture to disoblige. He counted upon the Austrians as naturally attached to his own interests by gratitude and friendship, and he supposed that the Russians would at least continue neuter from their former stipulations and subsidy. The two contracting powers soon found themselves deceived in every one of these expectations. The queen of Hungary had long meditated designs for recovering Silesia, which the king of Prussia had invaded when she was unable to defend her native dominions. Her chief hopes of assistance were from Russia; and she expected the rest of the powers in question would continue neuter. However, she now found by the late treaty that all her hopes of Russian assistance were frustrated, as England was joined with Prussia to counteract her intentions. Thus deprived of one ally, she sought about, in order to substitute another. She applied to France for that purpose; and to procure the co-operation of that court, gave up her barrier in the Netherlands, which England had been for ages securing against that power with its blood and its treasures (May). By this extraordinary revolution the whole political system of Europe acquired a new aspect, and the treaties of a century were at one blow rendered ineffectual. France and Austria next invited the czarina to accede; and Russia, unmindful of her subsidies from England, ardently embraced the proposal, as a settlement in the western parts of Europe was what that State had long desired to obtain. But not Russia alone, but Sweden also, was brought to accede by the intrigues of France."

543. *Ministerial Changes — The Pitt Ministry, 1757.*— "While conquest shined upon us from the east, it soon became still more splendid in the western world. The clamour which had been raised against the Newcastle ministry for their supposed mismanagement in the ineffective expedition of admiral Byng, compelled them to resign their offices. The affairs of war had hitherto been directed by a ministry but ill supported by the commons, because not confided in by the

542. What was the character of these alliances?

543. What was the conduct of the ministry?



people. They seemed timid and wavering, and but feebly held together, rather by their fears than their mutual confidence. When any new measure was proposed which could not receive their approbation, or any new member was introduced into the ministry whom they disliked, they considered it as an interference with their freedom of action, and threw up their places in disgust, with a view to resume them in a more absolute manner. Thus the strength of the crown was every day declining, while an aristocracy filled up every avenue to the throne, intent only on the emolument, not the duties of office. Such was the general opinion of the people, and it was too loud not to reach the throne. The ministries of the two Pelhams, which had hedged in the throne from 1744, were at length obliged to admit some men into a share of the government, whose activity at least would counterbalance their timidity and irresolution. At the head of the newly-introduced party was the duke of Devonshire and the celebrated William Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, from whose vigour the nation formed very great expectations, and they were not deceived. Though the old ministers were obliged to admit these new members into the cabinet, there was no legal penalty for refusing to co-operate with them; they therefore associated with each other, and used every art to make their new associates obnoxious to the king, upon whom they had been in a manner forced by the people. The ministries of the two Pelhams had flattered him in all his attachments to his German dominions, while the new ministers had long clamoured against all continental connections, as utterly incompatible with the interest of the nation. These two opinions carried to the extreme might have been erroneous; but the king was naturally led to side with those who favoured his own sentiments, and to reject those who opposed them. Mr. Pitt, therefore, after being a few months in office, was ordered to resign by his majesty's command; and his coadjutor, Mr. Legge, was displaced from being chancellor of the exchequer. But this blow to his ambition was but of short continuance: the whole nation, almost to a man, seemed to rise up in his defence." Plan after plan was tried and failed to form a new ministry. His majesty then abandoned all further attempts, observing that he had not thought he had so many of the duke of Newcastle's footmen about him.

543. Who was at the head of the newly-introduced party? What was the conduct of the old ministry? For what reasons was the king favourable to his former ministers? What followed the resignation of the new ministers?



The ministry which was now formed comprised all the contending parties, giving, however, the complete ascendancy to Pitt, who was appointed secretary of state (June 29, 1757).

544. *The Seven Years' War in Germany, until the end of 1760.*—In May, 1756, war was reciprocally declared by Great Britain and France, and soon after became general. England prepared to oppose France in America, Asia, and on the ocean; and France to attack Hanover, which country the king of Prussia undertook to protect, while England promised him troops and money to assist his operations. Then Austria had her aims on the dominions of Prussia, and had for that purpose collected a great armament in Moravia and Bohemia. In these views she was seconded by France, Saxony, and Sweden, also by Russia, who had hopes of acquiring a settlement in the west of Europe. Hostilities were commenced by the king of Prussia marching into Saxony, and occupying Leipsic and Dresden. Frederic then invaded Bohemia, and routed the Austrians in the great battle of Lowositz. Seven days after, he compelled the whole Saxon army of about 14,000 men to surrender at Pirna. The king of Prussia, thus launched into a tumult of war, with all the most potent States of Europe against him, and England only in alliance, went forward with a vigour that exceeded what history can show, and that may be credible to posterity. King only of a very small territory, and assisted by an ally, whose situation was too remote to give him any considerable succours, attacked and surrounded by his enemies, he still opposed them with unsurpassed resolution. In 1757, Frederic again entered Bohemia, defeated the Austrians, and invested Prague (May 6); but was at length beaten by marshal Daun, obliged to raise the siege, and retire from the field. Meanwhile, a Russian army of 100,000 men entered his dominions on one side, and an Austrian army on the other. Frederic marched against the latter, and defeated them at Rosbach (Nov. 5). About the same time, the French invaded Hanover, and compelled an army of 40,000 men, under the duke of Cumberland, to lay down their arms, leaving that country for a time in the hands of the conquerors. At the close of the year, Silesia, which had been taken by an army of Austrians and Hungarians, was retaken, after the victory at Lissa (Dec. 5). In 1758, Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick was appointed by George II. to the command of his electoral forces, and the French were driven by him from Hanover across the Rhine, and defeated at Crevelt. The seat of war was now removed to Moravia, where Frederic of Prussia made a fruit-

544. What were the principal military events in the years 1756-7-8?



less assault upon Ulmutz. Thence he directed his march against the Russians, who had been ravaging Brandenburg; a battle took place at Zorndorff, in which Frederic was completely victorious. In 1759, the French made themselves masters of Frankfort-on-the-Maine. Prince Ferdinand, with an inferior force, attacked the French in its vicinity, but was forced to retire with loss. The French then reduced Minden, Munster, and other places. To save Hanover, the prince found it necessary to give them battle: the conflict took place at Minden, when the French were defeated with the loss of 10,000 men (August 1). The victory would have been more complete had lord George Sackville brought up the English cavalry when ordered by his commander-in-chief. The obloquy to which he was subsequently exposed, obliged him to return home, there to encounter the public odium. In this campaign the Russians defeated the Prussian general, Weld, in Silesia, which was followed by their routing the heroic Frederic himself, with great loss, at Kunnersdorf; yet Frederic almost immediately after forced the Russians and Austrians to act on the defensive. In 1760, the French army was extremely numerous; a portion of it was engaged by prince Ferdinand, at Warburg, and suffered severely in the retreat from the English cavalry commanded by lord Granby (July 31). By this movement, however, the landgrave of Hesse became exposed to the French marshal Broglie, who had rapidly reduced Cassel, Minden, Gottingen, and Elmbeck, and was once more on the eve of regaining possession of Hanover. Nor could any steps be taken to arrest his progress. In this campaign the Austrians and the Russians poured into Prussia, and placed Frederick in danger of being surrounded in his camp at Liegnitz by three hostile armies. He advanced to meet, and defeated the Austrian general, Laudohn, between Liegnitz and Parchwitz (Aug. 15), and thus escaped; but the Austrians and Russians occupied and pillaged Berlin. After collecting his whole force, Frederic marched to the relief of his capital. The entire Prussian army now amounted to about 80,000; that of the Austrians under marshal Daun, to at least 100,000. When the two armies met near Torgau, Frederick gave his troops to understand that they had no alternative but to conquer or die. At the first charge the Austrians were thrown into confusion; and following up his advantage with desperate intrepidity, the king of Prussia succeeded before nightfall in putting them to the rout. This victory was purchased by the loss of 13,000 Prussians, while the loss of the Austrians was not less. In

544. What were the principal military events in 1759 and 1760?



consequence of this defeat the Austrians abandoned Silesia, and retired into Franconia, when the Russians and Swedes relinquished the campaign, and went into their old cantonments. Thus after five years of murderous warfare, the belligerents were in nearly the same situation as at the commencement of hostilities.

545. *American Campaign of 1758.*—Pitt had complained that, though the government had procured the means of carrying on the war with ardour and resolution, an apparent want of zeal in the commanders had disappointed the hopes of the country. Accordingly when he undertook to prosecute the war with vigour in America, three new commanders were put at the head of separate operations. "General Amherst commanded that designed against the island of Cape Breton, in the entrance of the gulf of St. Lawrence; general Abercrombie that against Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, and Ticonderago; and general Forbes that against Fort du Quesne (now Pittsburgh), on the Ohio. Cape Breton, which had been taken from the French during the preceding war, had been restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was not till the French had been re-put in possession of that island, that the English began to perceive the convenience of its harbour of Louisburg for annoying their trade with impunity. It was also a convenient port for the French carrying on their fishery, a branch of commerce of the utmost benefit to them. To wrest it, therefore, once more from the hands of the French, was considered of the first importance. The fortress of Louisburg, on an island in the entrance to the St. Lawrence, by which it was defended, was strengthened by art, and was still better fortified from the nature of its situation. The garrison was also numerous, the commander vigilant, and every precaution taken to oppose a landing. The English, however, surmounted every obstacle with great intrepidity, and the place surrendered by capitulation (July 21). The expedition to Fort du Quesne was equally successful, but that against Crown Point was once more defeated. This was now the second time that the English army had attempted to penetrate into those hideous wilds by which nature had secured the French possessions in that part of the world. Braddock fell in the attempt, a martyr to his impetuosity: too much caution was equally injurious to his successor. Abercrombie

545. What had Pitt complained of before he was minister? How did he himself act? What generals commanded the American operations in 1758? Why was Cape Breton considered an advantageous situation? Relate the particulars of the capture of Louisburg.



spent much time in marching to the place of action, and the enemy were thus perfectly prepared to give him a severe reception. On his assailing the enemy, a terrible carnage ensued, and the general, after repeated efforts, was obliged to order a retreat. The English army, however, were still superior, but the general felt his defeat too sensibly to remain in the neighbourhood of a triumphant enemy. He therefore withdrew his troops, and returned to his camp at Lake George, from whence he had taken his departure."

546. *American Campaign of 1759—Capture of Quebec.*—When the season for military operations opened in 1759, "expeditions were driven forward against three different parts of North America at the same time. General Amherst, the commander-in-chief, with 12,000 men, was to attack Crown Point, that had hitherto been the reproach of the English army. General Wolfe was to enter the river St. Lawrence, and undertake the siege of Quebec, the capital of the French dominions in America; while general Prideaux and Sir William Johnson were to attempt a French fort near the cataracts of Niagara. This last-named expedition was the first that succeeded. The fort of Niagara was a place of great importance, and served to command all the communication between the northern and western French settlements. The siege was carried on with vigour; and on the defeat of a body of French troops which attempted its relief, the garrison surrendered prisoners of war. The success of general Amherst was less splendid, though not less serviceable; on arriving at the forts of Crown Point and Ticonderago he found both deserted and destroyed. There now only remained the capture of Quebec to put all North America into the possession of the English. Admiral Saunders commanded the naval part of the expedition; and the operations by land were committed to general Wolfe, who was not yet thirty-five years of age. He had distinguished himself on many former occasions, particularly at the siege of Louisburg, and had raised himself to his present command, without being indebted to family or connections. In America the war had been hitherto carried on with extreme barbarity; and retaliating murders were continued without any one's knowing who first began. Wolfe, however, disdaining to imitate such example, carried on the war with all the spirit of humanity which it admits of." It is

546. How many expeditions were undertaken in North America in 1759, and by whom were they commanded? Which of them succeeded first? What was the success of general Amherst? What town would now put the Britons in possession of all North America? Who had the command against it by sea and by land?



not our aim to enter into a minute detail of the siege of this city; it will be sufficient to say, that Wolfe landed in June, with 8000 men, upon the island of Orleans, a little below Quebec, where he established his camp and prepared for the siege. The city is built at the confluence of the St. Lawrence and the St. Charles, on the summit of a precipitous rock, which, stretching westward parallel with the former river, renders the town on that side impregnable. On the opposite side it is protected by the rough tide of the St. Charles, roaring over broken channels, with its borders intersected with numerous ravines. "When to these we consider the fortifications with which it was secured, the natural strength of the country, the great number of vessels and floating batteries the enemy had provided for the defence of the river, the numerous bodies of savages continually hovering around the English army, we must own there was such a combination of difficulties as might discourage and perplex the most resolute commander. Wolfe was so sensible of the difficulty of this undertaking, that in a letter to the ministry, he said, 'I know that the affairs of Great Britain require the most vigorous measures. But then the courage of a handful of brave men should be exerted only where there is some hope of a favourable event. At present the difficulties are so various, that I am at a loss how to determine.' After constantly reconnoitring the enemy's position until the beginning of September, the only prospect of attempting the town with success appeared to be by landing a body of troops in the night below the town, who were to clamber up the banks of the river, and take possession of the ground on the back of the city. This attempt, however, appeared peculiarly discouraging. The stream was rapid, the shore shelving, the bank above lined with sentinels, the landing-place so narrow as to be easily missed in the dark, and the steepness of the ground such as hardly to be surmounted in the daytime. All these difficulties, however, were surmounted on the night of the 12th of September, by the conduct of the general and the bravery of the men. Colonel Howe, with the light infantry and the Highlanders, ascended the woody precipices with admirable courage and activity, and dislodged a small body of troops that defended a narrow pathway up the bank; thus, a few mounting, the general drew the rest up in order as they arrived. Monsieur de Montcalm, the French commander, was no sooner apprised that the English had gained the heights of Abraham, which he had confidently deemed

546. Describe the situation of Quebec, and the manner in which it was attacked. Who was the French commander?



inaccessible, than he resolved to hazard a battle; and a furious encounter quickly began. This was one of the most desperate engagements during the war. The French general was slain; the second in command shared the same fate. General Wolfe was stationed on the right, where the attack was most warm; as he stood conspicuous in the front line, he had been aimed at by the enemy's marksmen, and received a shot in the wrist, which, however, did not oblige him to quit the field. Having wrapped a handkerchief round his hand, he continued giving orders without the least emotion, and advanced at the head of the grenadiers with their bayonets fixed; but a second ball, more fatal, pierced his breast; so that, unable to proceed, he leaned on the shoulder of the soldier that was next him. Now, struggling in the agonies of death, and just expiring, he heard a voice cry, 'They run!' Upon which he seemed for a moment to revive, and asking who ran, was informed the French. Expressing his wonder that they ran so soon, and unable to gaze any longer, he sunk on the soldier's breast, and his last words were, 'I die happy.'" The loss of the English was slight, for the whole engagement did not continue more than half an hour; the French ranks having been broken early, which produced a premature and precipitate retreat. The city was still strongly garrisoned, and provided with the means of a vigorous defence; but a panic had spread among the troops, and at the end of five days the governor capitulated, and the shattered remains of the French army retired in disorder to Montreal. All Canada soon after submitted to the British arms.

547. *National Glory, costly and profitless, 1760.*—"At this time the efforts of England over every part of the globe were amazing; and the expense of her operations greater than ever had been disbursed by any nation before. A large English force commanded the extensive peninsula of India; another army of 20,000 men confirmed their conquests in North America; there were 30,000 men employed in Germany, and several other bodies dispersed in different garrisons in various parts of the world; but all these were nothing to the force maintained at sea, which carried command wherever it went, and had totally annihilated the French power on that element. The courage and the conduct of the English admirals had surpassed whatever had been read of in history; neither superior force, nor number, nor even the terrors of the tempest could intimidate them. Admiral

546. Relate the conduct of general Wolfe during the close of the battle, and his fate. What were the consequences of this victory?

547. How was the British power exhibited in 1760?



Hawke gained a complete victory over an equal number of French ships, on the coast of Bretagne, in Quiberon Bay, in the midst of a tempest, during the darkness of the night, and what a seaman fears more, upon a rocky shore (Nov. 20). Such was the glorious figure the British nation appeared in to all the world at this time." But the English now began to get tired of glory, and to open their eyes to their own interest, and to find that they were waging war for conquests that could neither be enjoyed nor preserved, while they were submitting to an amount of taxation before unheard of, and contributing an amount of their property under the name of loans, to be wasted in war and embezzled by those to whom it was entrusted. From the accession of George II. to this time about 276,349,773*l.* had been expended by his ministers, or about 8,311,000*l.* a year. Whatever money is spent on unnecessary wars or overpaid placemen, is a waste which leaves nothing behind but an increased appetite for the further plunder of the public.

548. *Death and Character of George II.*—While Pitt, who had at first come into popularity and power by opposing the king's predilections for war, was urging it on with even greater ardour than any of his predecessors, the nation was surprised by the sudden death of George II., on the 21st of October, 1760. "He had arisen at his usual hour, and observed to his attendants, that as the weather was fine, he would take a walk in the gardens of Kensington, where he then resided. In a few minutes after his return, being left alone, he was heard to fall down upon the floor. The noise of this bringing his attendants into the room, they lifted him into bed, where he desired, with a faint voice, that the princess Amelia might be sent for; but before she could reach the apartment, he expired from a rupture of the right ventricle of the heart." Thus died the second of our Georges, at the age of seventy-seven, after an eventful reign of thirty-four years and four months. He had two sons and five daughters: Frederic, prince of Wales, who died in 1751; and the duke of Cumberland; Anne, princess of Orange; Mary; Louisa, queen of Denmark; Amelia, and Caroline. Of George II., it is said, that his policy out of England was narrow, weak, and profligate; but in England it was just, tolerant, and frequently liberal. The executive power

547. Why were the people beginning to tire of glory? Is foreign warfare beneficial? What is said of money spent in unnecessary war?

548. What was the cause of the king's death? How many children did he have? What is said of his character?



was wielded with equity and mildness, except in his persistence of the unjust execution of admiral Byng, and no attempts were made by him to trespass upon the constitution. His predominant passions were Hanover and money. He nearly lost Hanover, and died rich.

549. *Notable Incidents in this Reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). Until 1731, all legal processes and pleadings were in Latin. It was then enacted that in future they should be entered in English. This very salutary measure was resisted, on the ground of the danger that would be incurred by meddling with the *established* forms of judicial proceedings. The dread of innovation is constantly urged against improvements become necessary by the advance of intelligence.

(2). In 1742, a committee of the house of commons was appointed to inquire into the conduct of Sir Robert Walpole during the last ten years of his administration. Although the greatest obstacles were thrown in the way of inquiry, the committee discovered that he had appropriated to himself nearly a million and a half of the public money, that more than £50,000 had been paid to authors and editors of newspapers, for articles in favour of his administration, and that on the day previous to his resignation he had signed orders on the treasury for £30,000. "Walpole's private fortune originally was about 2000*l.* per annum. All his known resources, including his official income of 3000*l.* and 2000*l.* more for a sinecure, even with the considerable emoluments he procured for his family, did not account for the great extravagance of his living, and the enormous sums laid out upon his house at Houghton."

(3). In 1746, it was first practically illustrated that the administration of government was vested in the parliament and not in the king. After the resignation of Walpole, the king made lord Granville secretary of state and the earl of Bath first lord of the treasury, when nearly every member of the administration, including the duke of Newcastle and eight other dukes, threw up their offices. Lord Granville finding it impossible to form a government, which would obtain the support of parliament, abandoned the attempt. The former ministers were then recalled; and the king was taught that he must consult parliament in the choice of his ministers.

(4). In 1748, turnpikes or toll-gates were established in different parts of England, at which a toll was collected from travellers with horses and carriages for the maintenance of the roads. The measure was very unpopular, but the country was indebted to it for the subsequent beauty and safety of the roads, and the great facilities for travelling.

(5). In 1752, the NEW STYLE or Gregorian computation was adopted, by taking eleven days from September, the 3rd being called the 14th. The year was also made to commence on the 1st of January in place of the 25th of March according to the legal supputation. By the Julian computation, before employed, the year exceeded the solar year by eleven minutes, and had gained ten days by the time of pope Gregory XIII. That pope therefore took ten days from the month of October, 1582, and altered the calendar so as to make the vernal equinox fall on the 21st of March, as it did at the time of the establishment of the Julian or Old Style in the year 525.

(6). The eight years' war which arose in 1739 out of the British contraband trade with the Spanish colonies, where the loss to the British smugglers might not have exceeded 100,000*l.*, cost this country 46,418,689*l.* As to any acquisitions, or advantages of any kind, cal-



culated to indemnify the nation for such an expense, they are to be looked for in vain. When peace was concluded by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the terms obtained were considered so disadvantageous, that the Pelham ministry had not confidence sufficient to move for a vote of approbation in parliament.

(7). The war which commenced in hostilities with France in 1754 about the boundaries of Nova Scotia, and raged with fury over the Continent during the remainder of this reign, cost this country 75,000,000*l.* This war was principally distinguished by the acquisition from France of the West India Islands of Grenada, Tobago, and St. Vincent, and of the whole province of Canada, none of which became of the slightest benefit to the British people. In place of farms being made attainable on easy terms in the territory acquired by these so-called conquests to emigrants from this country, the land most suited for settlement was granted by the ministers among their parliamentary supporters to be sold by them in lots to suit purchasers. The colonial estates still possessed by many noble families were acquired as free gifts in this and the preceding reigns. No attempt was ever made to make the colonies pay the whole of their local charges of government, and to contribute their equitable proportion towards the imperial expenses, a large amount of which was incurred for their protection.

(8). At the accession of George II. the national debt amounted to 52,092,235*l.*, and the annual interest payable thereon to 2,217,551*l.*; and at the conclusion of his German war in 1760 it was increased to 146,682,844*l.*, for which an annual interest of 4,840,821*l.* was payable, a sum nearly three times the whole expenditure of government in the profuse and corrupt reign of Charles II.

(9). The careful student of English history up to this time can scarcely have failed to arrive at the conclusions that parliamentary government had excessively augmented the burdens on the commonalty, and had wholly failed to increase their liberties. As in the last reign the duration of parliament had been extended to lessen the popular influence on the house of commons, so in this the qualification was made more stringent to keep the representation in the hands of the landholders. Up to this time the people might complain against the general course of government, but they had no power to alter it.

(10). In this reign, the house of commons was almost exclusively composed of the nominees of the great tory and whig landholders; and as the qualification for county and borough representatives was now respectively 600*l.* and 300*l.* a year from real estate, corresponding to present rentals of seven times these sums, the administration of government was virtually in the hands of an inconsiderable number of landholders. This state of things was further aggravated by the flagrant parliamentary corruption which prevailed. It is recorded of Walpole, that he knew the price of every member of the house of commons. Promotion in civil offices and in the church, in the army and navy, sinecures, pensions, and payments in money, were the bribes obtained for ministerial support. The purchase of rotten boroughs—decayed towns with the right to return members to parliament, was the most profitable of all investments. It secured lucrative government contracts, provided for sons and daughters, and conferred the peerage. It is therefore not remarkable that the expenditure of government should have so greatly increased, and the less so when only about *three per cent.* of the average annual expenditure was raised by taxation on *real estate*, while 97 per cent. was raised by taxes on commodities chiefly consumed by the commonalty and by loans still to be repaid.



## GEORGE III.

Began to reign October 25th, 1760; died January 20th, 1820.

550. *The King's predominant Idea — Newcastle and Pitt Ministers.*—George III. was in his twenty-third year when he became king, on the death of his grandfather, his father Frederick prince of Wales having died in 1751. He was brought up in such strict privacy by his mother, a princess of Saxe-Gotha, that on his accession he was even unacquainted with the persons of the ministers. His natural and acquired abilities were of a limited character, advantage of which was taken by his mother to imbue his mind with all the arbitrary notions of government peculiar to the petty sovereigns of Germany, her constant exhortation to him being, 'George, be king.' This became his predominant idea through life. One of the king's first acts of royalty was to introduce into the privy council the earl of Bute, one of the superintendants of his education, and the inculcator of his mother's schemes. No change was made in the ministry; the duke of Newcastle retained the distribution of all preferments under the crown, and Mr. Pitt continued to be the political head of the cabinet. As an indication, however, of the sober and religious character which the new reign was about to assume, a royal proclamation, issued on the 31st of October, 'For the encouragement of piety and virtue, and for preventing and punishing of vice, profaneness, and immorality.' The subsisting parliament was opened in November with a speech from the king, which gave general satisfaction, more especially from the use of the expression, 'Born and educated in this country, I glory in the name of Briton.' To carry on the existing continental war with vigour, the commons voted 19,000,000*l.*, of which 12,000,000*l.* was to be raised by a loan, the interest to be paid by *an additional tax of three shillings a barrel on strong beer*, a measure which produced great discontent. The king's civil list was fixed at the clear annual sum of 800,000*l.*, payable out of the aggregate fund, in place of allotting as heretofore certain taxes for that purpose. This session of parliament is memorable for rendering the judges independent, and thereby ensuring the impartial administration of justice.

550. What was the king's age at his accession? How was he brought up? What notions were instilled into his mind? How were these shortly expressed? Who were the king's principal ministers of state? What expression of the king gave general satisfaction? What civil list was granted for the king's life? What forces and subsidies were voted for the service of 1761?



Although an act had passed in the reign of William III. to continue the commissions of the judges during their good behaviour, they were legally determined on the death of the reigning sovereign. No instance had, indeed, occurred since that period of the removal of a judge at the accession of a new sovereign; but it was justly considered, that such a power remaining in the crown was a derogation from the perfect independence of that important office. An act was now passed to render their office permanent and ensure them their salaries for life. The parliament was dissolved in March, and writs were afterwards issued for a new parliament.

551. *Marriage of the King—The Family Compact—Pitt resigns.*—During the summer of 1761 various changes in the ministry were made in accordance with the king's predilections, the earl of Bute becoming one of the principal secretaries of state. On the 8th of September, the king wedded the princess Charlotte Sophia of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and on the 22nd their majesties were crowned in Westminster Abbey, with the usual solemnity and magnificence. The military operations of this year had no particular results. Though never very acceptable to the late king, Mr. Pitt had conducted the war with a spirit and success that were perhaps unequalled by any former minister; and he was no less distinguished for his sagacity and penetration in diving into the designs and intrigues of the enemy. While negotiations for a general peace had for some time been going on, he had observed, with the highest indignation, the extreme partiality of the Spaniards towards the French, notwithstanding their professions of neutrality: he also now discovered, by means of his spies in foreign courts, that the sovereigns of France, Spain, Naples, and Parma had entered into a treaty, known by the name of the Bourbon Family Compact, in order to support each other against all enemies. Moved by these considerations, Pitt proposed that a fleet should be immediately despatched into the Mediterranean, to intercept the Spanish treasure-galleons, or strike some other blow of importance, in case the ministry of Spain refused to give instant satisfaction to the court of Great Britain. This proposal was strongly opposed by the other members of the cabinet, either from a conviction of its impropriety, or perhaps in order to get rid of a minister, who, by means of his popularity, and the success of his schemes, had acquired an ascendancy in parliament, and even in the council, that in some measure annihilated the

550. What law was made concerning the judges?

551. Who was introduced into the ministry in 1761? Whom did George III. marry? Why did Pitt resign his office of minister of state?



hereditary influence of all the most powerful families in the kingdom. In a word, it was disapproved by every member of the cabinet, except Mr. Pitt and his brother-in-law earl Temple; upon which these two ministers resigned their places: the former, as secretary of state; and the latter, as lord privy seal (Oct. 5, 1761). That Mr. Pitt might not retire from the public service without some mark of royal as well as national gratitude, a pension of 3000*l.* a year was conferred for three lives—his own life, that of his wife, and his eldest son; and at the same time his wife was created baroness Chatham.

552. *First Move to 'be King'—Newcastle resigns—Bute Minister.*—With the resignation of Pitt commenced the endeavour of the youthful monarch to 'be king'—that is, to make his will be felt in the administration of government, in accordance with the teaching of his mother. The revolution-settlement of 1689 had for one of its objects to establish that the king should reign, but not govern: hence the political dogma that the king can do no wrong, because one or other of his ministers is responsible to parliament for every act of government. This principle having been acted upon in the four previous reigns, all political power had become vested in a few families, who had become possessed of great wealth through the enjoyment, without interruption, since the revolution, of all the lucrative preferments under the crown. These families were further strengthened by union and by intermarriages, so as to make them not only independent of, but in many respects superior to, the crown. From among them the monarch was obliged to select his ministers, as none opposed to them could command majorities in parliament. To break up this phalanx, alike antagonistic to the crown and to the people, was in itself most laudable, provided the object was to increase the independence of the parliament as well as that of the crown. But as on all former contentions between the crown and the parliament, the assailant sought only to increase his own power. The Pelham family, it was said, had been so long masters of the cabinet that it was necessary to get rid of them and all their connections. To effect this, the duke of Newcastle was made so uneasy in his situation, that he resigned his post of first lord of the treasury, and was succeeded by the earl of Bute (May, 1762). Nothing in the long exercise of power ever became the duke so much as the manner in which he quitted it; for when he

552. Why did the monarch desire to 'be king?' What did the revolution-settlement establish? What did the practice of that principle lead to? What is the difference between reigning and governing?



was offered a pension, as a debt due for past services, he nobly replied, that having spent a princely fortune in the service of his country, rather than become a burden to it at last, he would make his old duchess a washerwoman.

553. *The Warfare in 1762—Peace of Paris.*—The new parliament met in November, 1761, and after having granted to the queen a dowry of 100,000*l.* a year in case she should survive the king, 70,000 seamen and 67,600 soldiers were voted, and 18,000,000*l.* granted for the service of the year. Twelve millions were raised by loan, to pay the interest of which the taxes on windows and on spirits were augmented. Long debates took place concerning the propriety of continuing to interfere in the German war; but the resolutions were in favour of the minister. The family compact between the members of the house of Bourbon was now promulgated; the Spanish and English ambassadors were mutually recalled from Madrid and London, and war was declared against Spain (Jan. 4, 1762). The king of Prussia, whose situation was almost hopeless at the end of the last campaign, was suddenly relieved from his implacable enemy the empress Elizabeth of Russia. She died, and was succeeded by her nephew Peter III., a man of a peaceable disposition. He immediately ordered his generals to cease hostilities; agreed to abandon all conquests made by the Russians, and made a separate alliance with Frederic. With this encouragement the king of Prussia had redoubled his efforts, and had gained considerable advantages, when a revolution took place in Russia, which blighted Frederic's hopes. The indolence of Peter III. gave great offence to the Russians, and his wife Catharine took advantage of the public discontent, declared herself empress, and a few days after Peter *died suddenly*, as many emperors of Russia have done. Catharine, however, did not break the treaty made by her husband; but she recalled her troops, and Frederic was obliged to rely on his own exertions: his activity compensated in some measure for the loss of his ally. He drove the Austrians from Schweidnitz and Freyburg, then entered Bohemia, and advanced almost to Prague. Prince Ferdinand and the marquess of Granby likewise obtained advantages over the French, who were obliged to abandon Gottingen and Cassel. On France and Spain seeking to compel the king of Portugal to join in the alliance against England, the English government sent troops and other assistance, which enabled

552. What did the duke of Newcastle refuse?

553. What number of seamen and of soldiers were voted for the service of 1762? What sums were granted? When was war declared against Spain?



him to resist the attacks of his hostile neighbours. It also sent a squadron, under admiral Rodney, with troops against the French colonies in the West Indies. The first attack was upon Martinique, which was taken after a vigorous defence, and the whole island soon after surrendered. As Spain had commenced hostilities against Portugal, the English government determined to attack the Spanish colonies. Cuba was taken, with property to the value of 3,000,000*l.*, besides immense quantities of stores, nine ships of the line, and four frigates; and soon afterwards the *Hermione* galleon, with more than a million of money on board. Besides these losses, the commerce of Spain received a great check in the capture of Manilla and the Philippine islands in the East Indies, and another galleon containing silver to the amount of half a million. But the English were not so fortunate in their next attack, which was upon Buenos Ayres in South America: the Spaniards defended themselves bravely, and one of the English vessels being burnt, with more than 200 of her crew, the rest of the squadron retired. As the pecuniary resources of Spain depended very much upon her colonies, the British cruisers were particularly active in looking out for her homeward-bound fleets; and in the course of the summer, besides single prizes, they captured a whole fleet of twenty-five sail, richly laden. Towards the end of the year the French made a successful attack upon Newfoundland; but it was soon retaken by general Amherst. These losses convinced the members of the family compact that they had underrated the resources of England, and their own being nearly exhausted, proposals of peace were made. The English minister, lord Bute, was glad of the opportunity, as the whigs, under the influence of the duke of Newcastle, used all their efforts to prevent the government from carrying on the contest in such a manner as might procure an advantageous peace. The conferences were opened at London in September, and the preliminaries of peace were soon concluded between England, France, and Spain (Nov. 3). England abandoned her alliance with Prussia, and yielded up her conquests, except Canada, Senegal, and the Grenades. The French and Spaniards also ceded whatever they had taken, and Louis consented to dismantle the fortifications of Dunkirk. Peace was finally proclaimed in March, 1763, and this general pacification is known by the name of the peace of Paris. It was immediately followed by one between Austria and Prussia; and thus, after doing each other all the

553. What captures were made by the English? Who proposed peace? What were its principal stipulations?



harm they possibly could during seven years, finding their talons blunted, the belligerents agreed to remain tranquil, in order to give them time to grow again.

554. *The New System of State Policy.*—The long-meditated change of state policy was now coming into action. The peace which had just been concluded removed all foreign obstructions, and allowed the young monarch, with his ministerial adviser (the earl of Bute), to break the bonds of that oligarchical combination which had so long fettered the prerogative. According to the new system, the king was to be as independent of his aristocracy, and not as intermingled as possible in all their interests and sympathies; to be rescued from the necessity of sharing his consequences with any order, or any individual of that order. He was to rule by men who looked only to the throne, not by the whig families who had some respect for themselves, as well as reverence for the monarch; and who looked also to the people. He was to choose his ministers, and that entirely as his own partialities directed him; that is, "favourites" under the title of friends, were to be preferred as fit objects of his confidence, to men who had characters and opinions of their own, and who therefore could operate with a salutary influence on his. But this was not all. Great efforts were to be made to accomplish the destruction of the political influence and popular feelings of the whig families; a miserable system of intrigue was to be entered upon. The least-honourable men of each knot and division of the aristocracy were to be brought over to the court party, the better to destroy all confidence and union among those who remained; to divide, and therefore rule; to degrade, and therefore render insignificant, was the very scheme and essence of the plan involved in the very supposition of it. And those new converts, these deserters and stragglers from their family and party attachments, from the notions of their ancestors, from the popular sympathies by which they had hitherto been so honourably distinguished, these were the men who were to be associated as friends and familiars to the bosom of their sovereign. The people, in the meantime, were to lose their former respect for public men, whom they were now to see mutually betraying and accusing each other; and even for the sovereign himself, whom they were *also* to see, as far as they could judge, practising upon the mean and selfish passions of his aristocracy.

555. *Political Changes induced by the New System.*—It soon became necessary for those who sought office under the sove-

554. What had the new state-policy for its object? What besides?



reign, especially if they fought under the banners of opposition, to found their claims on the confidence of the people, rather than family connections; hence the whigs began to embrace larger notions of liberty, and to conciliate adherents by a zealous advocacy of popular rights. From this period they declined rapidly from that character which they had established at the revolution, contracting the habits of an opposition, and giving a different tone to parliamentary warfare; this, instead of being a struggle, as before, between whigs and tories, soon became a contest between the friends of the crown and the advocates of the people; so that although the king had liberated himself from the domination of the great families, his prerogative soon became more subject to the encroachment of popular pretensions. About this period also the very form and constitution of parliament admitted a change: many of the smaller boroughs rejected the influence of high families or even of the crown itself; transferring their representation to persons who were recommended solely by their wealth: indeed, about the commencement of his reign we first hear of the sale of seats in parliament, whereby an opening was made in the legislature for the representatives of the monied and commercial interests, which were now making such rapid advances: in short, the house of commons appeared to consist of four different bodies of men; the crown had its immediate friends, who affected to belong to no party, to maintain no parliamentary connections, and to hold no fixed opinions; the aristocratic families still retained a considerable portion of that influence which is inseparable from rank and property united; the popular interests found advocates through the change of sentiments; and the monied interests through the changes of representation mentioned above [Hughes, I. c. 4].

556. *The King unpopular—Bute Resigns.*—The new system was so little relished that the young monarch and his court became suddenly unpopular; his levees were disturbed by petitions, that talked of the principles that had seated his family on the throne; and the mob delivered their particular sentiments on every occasion, after their own violent and tumultuous manner. On these expressions of popular feeling a late eminent historical teacher\* has thus remarked: ‘It is

555. What political changes did the new system lead to? Into how many parties did the house of commons appear to be divided into? What was the characteristic of each party?

556. In what way was the king’s unpopularity indicated?

\* Smyth’s Lectures on Modern History.



easy to talk of sedition and faction; the licentiousness of the people; the ignorance and the brutality of the mob of a metropolis. They who see a monarch, amiable and respectable in his nature, in the full exercise of every private and domestic virtue, ascend the throne in the bloom of youth, amid the shouts and applause of his subjects; and then, without any national calamity, or rather amid the highest national prosperity, suddenly cease to be the object of admiration; find his palace resounding with complaints, his courts of justice with prosecutions for libels, and his highways with uproar—they who can think such general terms as “faction,” “sedition,” “licentiousness,” are a sufficient solution of such phenomena, may pride themselves, if they please, on their loyalty, as they might with equal reason on their sagacity. But philosophers and statesmen are not likely to acquiesce in reasons so superficial, and will not be quite so ready to suppose, that, in a time of public and exterior prosperity, everything can be wrong in the *interior* of a community, unless some mistakes of a very unfortunate nature have been made by those who are intrusted with the management of its concerns.’ The marked unpopularity of the king, the outcry of favouritism which had continued against lord Bute from his introduction into the ministry, and the general indignation raised against the minister for imposing a tax of four shillings a hogshead on cyder, induced him to resign, in the hope that his retirement from public life would “make things quiet, and his majesty’s government easy” (April, 1763).

557. *Grenville Minister—The North Briton Prosecution: John Wilkes.*—The honourable George Grenville, brother of lord Temple and brother-in-law of Mr. Pitt, now became prime minister. He seems to have been selected by the king and lord Bute, as a ready instrument for carrying their concerted plans into execution; while the other members of this cabinet were supposed to remain under his lordship’s influence, and to adopt his political maxims; and as the official door was thus closed against the popular leaders, party spirit increased in violence, and the press teemed with scurrilous publications. One of the most furious of these was a periodical paper, entitled the *North Briton*, conducted by the noted John Wilkes, member of parliament for Aylesbury,

556. Ought such marks of expressing dissatisfaction to be stigmatised as factious and seditious? Why did lord Bute resign his office of prime minister?

557. Why was Mr. Grenville selected as lord Bute’s successor? What followed upon Grenville becoming minister?



a gentleman of wit and spirit, but not, perhaps, of the most rigid principles. The North Briton attacked the king's speech to the parliament with a very indecent freedom, the ministers thought they could not pass over it in silence. A general warrant\* was, therefore, issued out for taking up the authors, printers, and publishers of that paper (April 29, 1763). Wilkes was seized and committed to the Tower; and several innocent printers were at the same time apprehended, but upon bringing his *habeas corpus* before the court of common pleas, he was released from the Tower by the unanimous decision of the judges that privilege of parliament extended to the case of writing a libel (May 6). The house of commons were of a different opinion. They resolved, that number 45 of the North Briton was a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and that privilege of parliament did not extend to the case of writing such a libel. Not intimidated by this resolution, the imprisoned printers brought their actions against the king's messenger, and recovered considerable damages. Soon after, Mr. Wilkes fought a duel with Mr. Martin, a member of parliament, and late secretary to the treasury, whose character he had attacked in his writings. In this encounter he received a dangerous wound, from which, however, he recovered; and he had no sooner done so, than he brought an action in the court of common pleas against one of the under-secretaries of state for seizing his papers, and obtained 1000*l.* damages. Next January Wilkes was expelled the house of commons; and not appearing to the indictments preferred against him for publishing the North Briton, and for some other charges, he was at last outlawed. General warrants were afterwards declared to be illegal by a resolution of both houses; and this, indeed, seems to be the chief advantage resulting from this violent dispute between Mr. Wilkes and the ministry.

558. *The American Colonies taxed: war with the North American Indians, 1764-5.*—At this period the transatlantic colonies numbered upwards of two millions of people, in-

557. Who was Wilkes, and why was he committed to the Tower? Was his committal found to be legal? What public advantage arose out of the government prosecution of Wilkes?

\* *General warrants.*—A practice had obtained in the office of secretary of state since the Restoration, grounded on some clauses in the acts for regulating the press, of issuing *general warrants* to take up (without naming any person in particular) the authors, printers, or publishers of such obscene or seditious libels, as were particularly specified in the warrant. When those acts expired in 1694, the same practice was continued in every reign, and under every administration, except the four last years of queen Anne, down to this time (1763) when they were adjudged to be void by the courts of law, and to be illegal by a vote of the house of commons.



cluding men of high capacity and signal enterprise. Hitherto these colonies had enjoyed immunity from direct taxation; but Grenville now brought forward a motion for extracting a direct revenue from them. The idea was not altogether a new one, for such a scheme had been projected during sir Robert Walpole's administration. It seems to have been now revived by the general complaint heard among the people of England of the weight of taxation they were called upon to bear. The first step taken was to pass a series of resolutions respecting new duties to be laid on goods imported by the Americans. These resolutions encountered no stringent opposition, and they received the royal assent on the 5th of April. In the next session (1765) parliament went a step further. The famous American stamp act was passed, by which measure all receipts for money, with deeds and conveyances, were to be written on stamped paper, the produce of which went to the government, or the documents were invalid. The resolutions respecting the new duties on goods had been received by the people of New England "like knives put to their throats;" but when the news of the passing of the stamp act arrived, the funeral tolling of bells throughout the colonies proclaimed the general dismay. And it unfortunately happened that the news of colonial taxation arrived in America when the colonists were in no very pleasant humour. After the French government had quitted Canada, they still retained some connection with the native Indians, and partly by their agents, and in part through encroachments made by the British on their hunting grounds, they were incited to war. The tribes flew to arms, and the frontiers of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, were mercilessly ravaged by them. They also captured several forts in Canada, and massacred the garrisons. Emboldened by their success, they marched in full confidence of victory and surrounded Fort Pitt. This, however, they were obliged to abandon, to meet colonel Bouquet, who was advancing with a strong corps to the relief of that celebrated fort. A terrible battle took place, and great numbers were killed on both sides, but the Indians were finally routed, with the loss of their bravest chiefs. The Indians, however, in the other parts of the country, were not discouraged; but at length

558. What was the first step taken to derive a revenue from the American colonies? What famous act was passed in 1765, as a direct taxation on the colonists? How were these measures received by the Americans? In what war was England engaged at this period? What successes attended the Indian arms? By whose influence was the confederacy broken up?



sir William Johnstone, by his powerful influence, was enabled to detach the Indians of the Six nations from the confederacy, and to engage them on the side of the British; and after various skirmishes and surprises, the rest submitted on conditions, or retired into the depths of their native wilds and forests. In the treaty concluded with them, the limits of their territories were accurately defined; their past offences forgiven; and they were re-admitted to the friendship of Great Britain.

559. *Rockingham Minister—Pitt Minister, 1766-8.*—Although the Grenville administration had carried matters with a high hand, there were causes at work which threatened its dissolution. Indignant at the duties imposed upon them, the Americans resolved to abstain from the use of all British goods. This created great alarm among shipowners, merchants, manufacturers, artizans, and labourers in England; and the complaints of the two latter classes were increased by a scarcity of bread, and the high price of provisions. But these popular discontents might have been disregarded if Grenville had not given offence to the king by omitting the name of the princess dowager of Wales in a regency bill, which, from the illness of his majesty, it was deemed advisable to enact. This was fatal to Grenville's administration, and a new ministry was formed under the presidency of the earl of Rockingham. At this time the storm in America had become a perfect hurricane; and in order to allay it, the obnoxious stamp act was repealed. The Rockingham ministry also showed themselves equally ready to redress grievances at home as in America. They repealed the cyder act, which was almost as offensive in England as the stamp act in the American colonies; they passed an act for restraining the importation of foreign silks; and they abolished the old duties on houses and windows. They also appeased the general apprehension of a scarcity of bread by orders to prevent the exportation of corn, and by enforcing the old laws against monopoly. Other liberal measures were adopted by them, but though the legislative acts of this administration were of great importance to the country, its doom was sealed. By the repeal of the stamp act, Rockingham and his colleagues had lost the confidence of the king, and another entire change of administration was the consequence. Pitt was now called to the helm of affairs, and was raised to the

558. What was the final result of this war?

559. What were the causes of the downfall of the Grenville administration? What ministry succeeded? What were the principal measures of the Rockingham administration? Who next took the helm of affairs? Under what title did he take it?



upper house as earl of Chatham. This exaltation of Pitt to an earldom was characterized by lord Chesterfield as "a fall upstairs:" a fall which hurt him so much that he would never be able to stand upright again. Moreover, Chatham's administration was formed of such heterogeneous materials—of king's friends and republicans—of whigs and tories—of treacherous friends and open enemies, that it was evident it could not long exist. Changes therein speedily occurred, but the patched-up ministry was more anomalous than ever, and Chatham, aware of this, and seeing that his popularity was daily more and more declining, became a prey to grief, disappointment, and vexation. Illness, indeed, rendered him inefficient, and though for some time he still retained his position as prime minister, taking his salary, and doing nothing, he at length, in 1768, tendered his resignation. In the meantime, however, a member of his cabinet, Mr. Townshend, the chancellor of the exchequer, had, without his consent, revived the question of American taxation, and had imposed customs duties on the importation of glass, pepper, and tea—measures which had the effect of recreating disaffection in the colonies.

560. *The Grafton Cabinet—Events during its Administration, 1768-9.*—On the resignation of the earl of Chatham, the duke of Grafton assumed the reins of government. The first measure of his administration was to pass a bill for enlarging the prohibition against the exportation of corn, and for preventing distillation from wheat. This was passed in order to prevent the recurrence of scarcity, but a more effectual mode of securing plenty would have been to pass a bill for the better cultivation of lands already tilled, and for the enclosure of large tracts of land then uncultivated. At all events, the measures passed had not the effect of allaying the wide-spread discontent which at this period unhappily prevailed. The discontent was, indeed, more prevalent at this than at any preceding period of this reign. Other causes fanned its flames. The disputes which still were rife with the Americans, and the continued expulsion of Wilkes from his seat in parliament, had the effect of keeping the public mind in a state of excitement. Ministerial troubles grew on

559. What were the characteristics of Pitt's ministry? When did he resign? What new duties were imposed on the American colonies, and what effect did they produce?

560. By whom was the earl of Chatham succeeded? What was the duke of Grafton's first measure? Had this measure the effect of allaying discontent? What other causes increased the disaffection of the people?



every side: Ireland, as well as England and America, was in a state of trouble and commotion. That country was overrun with levellers, white boys, oak boys, and hearts of steel—factions which were bound together by secret oaths and a mutual detestation of titles. Nor was the Irish parliament less disorderly: it was so factious at this time, that the lord lieutenant prorogued it before it had done any business. In fact the king was surrounded by troubles in almost every part of his dominions: insubordination was the order of the day, and what made his situation more critical was, that he had not a minister of sufficient ability to guide the helm of state so as to keep it clear from the rocks and the shoals by which it was surrounded. His incompetency was proclaimed aloud in the speech which he put into the king's mouth at the opening of the session in January, 1770. Taking no notice of the public discontents, although it lamented the general distress, it chiefly adverted to a distemper which had broken out among horned cattle, which the king gravely asserted he had, by the advice of his privy council, endeavoured to check! "While the whole kingdom," says Junius, who wrote at this period, "was agitated with anxious expectations upon a great point, the question was meanly evaded, and instead of the explicit firmness of a king, nothing was given but the misery of a ruined grazier!" This speech, however, was fatal to the Grafton ministry. It raised such a storm of opposition, that the duke, harassed by it, and scourged by the press, resigned his office.

561. *Lord North Minister—The Commencement of the Revolt of America, 1770.*—The charge of government was now committed to Lord North. On his becoming premier, the imposed American duties were all repealed, except that on tea. This impost was avowedly retained to assert the right of taxation which all along the Americans had disputed, they maintaining that this right belonged only to themselves. Hence they resisted the remaining impost by refusing to receive tea, upon which it was laid, and declaring all persons infamous who dared to purchase the article. The great point in the matter was the principle, for the tax itself involved no great burden on the colonists. The impost, indeed, was only three pence per pound on an article from which one shilling was

560. What factions existed in Ireland at this period? Were the members of the Irish parliament loyal? What led to the dissolution of the Grafton administration?

561. Who became prime minister on the resignation of Grafton? What measures did he take in respect of the taxation of America? Why did he continue the impost on tea? Was this impost heavy?



deducted when exported to America. It could not be supposed, said lord North, in introducing his bill, that such a small tax as this would offend the colonists, unless, indeed, they were determined upon rebellion. But both parties yielding to the influence of violent declaimers, mistook each other's intentions. On the one hand the British parliament conceived that the colonies aimed at absolute independence, concealing, under the pretext of opposing a scheme of taxation, a fixed resolution to renounce the sovereignty of Great Britain; on the other the colonists imagined that the home government harboured designs unfriendly to their interests, and aspired to establish a general system of arbitrary rule. There was no foundation for either of these suppositions, but the mistakes made on both sides rendered all accommodation hopeless. The sword was drawn by the British government to enforce the obnoxious duty for the purposes of revenue and sovereignty in the colonies; while among the colonists themselves, although the sword was not actually drawn, it was ready to leap from the scabbard. At Boston serious riots occurred, and troops were sent to reduce the Bostonians to subjection, but if government intended to keep them in awe by military force, they had not sent a sufficient number of troops, and if they did not intend this they had sent too many. The appearance of the soldiers was the signal for renewed riots. The military were attacked by an infuriated mob with missiles and clubs, and though for a long time the soldiers remained quiet, merely using their weapons to keep their assailants at bay, they were at length compelled to fire in self-defence, and blood was shed. Several of the Bostonians were killed, and the newspapers represented the affair as a deliberate murder on the part of the troops, and nothing was neglected to exasperate the public mind, and to perpetuate the memory of "the bloody massacre." The 5th of March, 1770, indeed, the day on which this affray occurred, may be considered as the day on which the fierce struggle commenced between the mother-country and her American colonies, out of which the latter finally came forth triumphant.

562. *Prosecution of Woodfall and Almon—Parliamentary Proceedings on the Law of Libel.*—Nearly every act which the government at this time committed, tended only to excite the public clamour and excitement. During the summer, it

561. On what points were both parties mistaken? By whom were they thus misled? How did the British government act, to keep the people of Boston in awe? What effect did their employing military force produce? What day in the year did the struggle between England and America commence?



involved itself in new troubles, and exposed itself to fierce attacks, by prosecuting two printers and publishers of the celebrated "Letters of Junius." Woodfall was tried for printing one of them in his newspaper, "The Public Advertiser," and Almon for selling a republication of it in the "London Museum." This letter was addressed to his majesty, and was considered a scandalous libel. Almon was found "guilty of publishing," and sentenced to pay a fine of ten marks and find security for his good behaviour for two years. Woodfall was found "guilty of printing and publishing *only*," but the word *only* was fatal to his conviction, it being used in an ambiguous sense. A new trial was ordered, but when it came on the attorney-general said that he had not the original newspaper by which he could prove the publication, and this was fatal to his cause. Woodfall therefore escaped. The sentiments promulgated on the law of libel by lord Mansfield, before whom the case of Woodfall was tried, created much discussion among the legal profession, and met with much obloquy among the people. According to his dictum, a jury were merely to inquire into the facts of printing and publishing, and not to judge whether the matter in question was a libel or not! This was an attempt to infringe the rights and powers of juries, and to reduce their verdicts to a mere echo of the opinions of judges. Lord Chatham denounced this mode of directing juries from the bench, and warm debates occurred on the subject in the house of lords, while in the commons a committee was moved for to inquire into the constitutional power and duty of juries. This motion was negatived, but the sentiments called forth by the discussion, more especially from Chatham and lord Camden in the lords, and from Burke in the commons, were of such a character as to prove that the rights of the people were not to be invaded with impunity.

563. *The Falkland Islands—Quarrels between the Lords and the Commons—Convention with Spain.*—At this period, the attention of government was absorbed by a subject which threatened a new war with France and Spain. This was the affair of the Falkland Islands. These islands are situate in the Southern Atlantic Ocean, and, by right, they certainly

562. For what offences were Woodfall and Almon prosecuted? What resulted from their trials? What sentiments were promulgated by lord Mansfield on the law of libel? How were they received by the people? How were they received in parliament? What motion was brought forward in the commons respecting juries? What was the result?

563. What disputes arose with France and Spain at this period?



belonged to England. The discovery of them was made by captain Hawkins, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and they were afterwards visited by Strong, who gave them their present name. In 1764, a settlement was formed by the French in West Falkland at Berkely Sound; and in the year following, the English formed a counter settlement in East Falkland at Port Egmont. The Spaniards, who had neglected these islands and their resources, at first demanded their evacuation, both from France and England, but in 1769 they appear to have foregone their claims on the island in possession of the French, and to have claimed that only which was possessed by the English. To enforce their claim, an armament of several ships of war appeared suddenly off Port Egmont, and the British commandant, knowing that the place could not sustain a siege, capitulated. The British flag was insulted by the Spaniards unshipping the rudder of the commandant's vessel, and detaining it on shore for three weeks. Such an insult was not to be endured, and the British nation, inflamed with resentment, desired that the national honour should be avenged. Lord North accordingly put ships in commission ready for war; but he delayed their departure, in order to settle the matter, if possible, by negotiations. But these negotiations went on slowly, and the opposition pressed ministers upon the subject in parliament. In the lords, the duke of Manchester descanted in strong terms on the defenceless condition of Gibraltar, Minorca, and Jamaica. His language was so severe, that lord Gower desired the house might be cleared of all persons except those who had a right to sit there. He gave two reasons for his proposition, namely, that emissaries from the court of Spain *might* be present, and that persons might be there to take note of what was uttered. This step was warmly opposed, but it was adopted, and several members of the commons present were turned out, *sans ceremonie*. A strong protest was made against such proceedings by members of both houses, and it gave rise to a serious misunderstanding between the lords and commons. The debate, however, had its effects. Thus pressed, the ministry changed their policy towards the court of Spain. A messenger was despatched to recall our ambassador from Madrid, and to intimate to the

563. In what reign were the Falkland Islands discovered, and by whom? Did Spain enforce its claim upon these islands? In what manner was their claim enforced? How were the views of their aggressions received in England? What took place in parliament in consequence? What new line of policy did the ministry adopt on the subject?



English merchants and commanders of ships, that it would probably be expedient for them to leave the Spanish shores. This conduct alarmed the court of Spain, and as the king of France now declined to co-operate with that court, instructions were sent to London to the Spanish envoy, to accept the propositions offered by the British cabinet. Port Egmont was restored by the convention, and the sudden signing of it gave rise to stock-jobbing, and in the course of a few days large fortunes were made in Change Alley. Ministers were accused of being implicated in these unworthy transactions, and in the course of the session of 1771, a bill was passed in the commons for the more effectual prevention of stock-jobbing, although it does not appear to have obtained the notice of the lords.

564. *The Publication of Debates—Committal of the Lord Mayor and Alderman Oliver to the Tower—Contest between the City and Legislature, 1771.*—Hitherto it had been held that it was a breach of privilege to publish the debates of either house of parliament. Editors of periodicals had evaded the prohibition by publishing mutilated, and occasionally invented speeches, uttered by honourable lords under fictitious names; but these garbled and invented speeches did not now satisfy the people. They longed for a full reporting newspaper, and the printers, encouraged by the general feeling, ventured upon giving the proceedings in parliament, from day to day or week to week. They were confirmed in this resolution by the publication of the "Letters of Junius." But this was not likely to be allowed by parliament without a struggle. The members of both houses endeavoured to shut their doors in the face of the nation, and to choke all attempts at publicity, but in vain: debates in parliament were published *in extenso*. This was denounced as a "wicked proceeding," and a resolution was carried to the effect, that all persons who presumed to give, either in written or printed newspapers, any debates, in the whole or in part, should be proceeded against with the utmost severity. Six printers *were* proceeded against. Four of them appeared at the bar of the house, a fifth was already in Newgate, but the sixth refused to attend, and when a messenger was despatched to apprehend him, he handed the messenger over to the

563. What was the result of that policy? What new accusation was brought against the ministry arising out of the convention signed?

564. What practices were now first adopted respecting debates in parliament? In what light was this practice viewed by parliament? What measures were taken to prevent it? By whose means were these measures set aside?



custody of a constable, who carried him to Guildhall to answer for the assault. Wilkes, the sitting alderman, would not enter upon the case, and the messenger was conveyed to the mansion house. He was asked by the lord mayor by what authority he had committed the assault, and he produced his warrant; but the city magistrates—the lord mayor and alderman Oliver—represented, that by the city charters no capture could be made east of Temple Bar without the lord mayor's authority, and held him to bail to answer for the assault. These transactions being reported to the commons, the magistrates were ordered to attend in their places, and bring the mansion house minute book with them. They boldly justified their conduct, and were supported by many of the members, but they were committed to the Tower. While in the Tower they were visited by nobles and commoners, and the sheriffs waited upon them to express their disapprobation of the proceedings against them. The feeling of the public was so strong in their favour, that at the close of the session they were released, and from that period parliamentary debates have been published without any disguise or obstruction: a practice of the utmost importance to the effective working of the representative system, and one of the best safeguards of the British constitution. Another occasion of contest between the city and legislature, arose from the introduction of a bill for enclosing a part of the river Thames adjoining to the Durham Yard. The citizens considered, that by a grant of Henry VII., the soil and bed of the river from Staines Bridge to a spot near the Medway, belonged to them, but the bill was passed, and a pile of buildings called the Adelphi was erected on the site and disposed of by lottery; a system adopted by ministers to eke out the ways and means.

565. *Proceedings in Parliament, 1772-3—The American Colonies, 1773-4.*—The year 1772 was one of comparative quiet. In parliament, indeed, there were warm debates on subscription to the thirty-nine articles, from which many of the clergy and professors of civil law and physic prayed the house to relieve them; on a bill for securing estates against the dormant claims of the church; on the test and corporation acts; and on East India affairs. But no great results

564. For what were the lord mayor and alderman Oliver committed to the Tower? When were they released, and under what circumstances? What was the result of this contest between parliament and the city magistrates? What other occasion of contest arose between the city and the legislature?

565. By what characteristics were the sessions of 1772 and 1773 marked? On what subjects did the legislature debate?



followed. Ministers carried everything with a high hand, and at the close of the session lord North seemed firmly seated in office. The opening session of 1773 was marked by the same characteristics. Ministers carried their motions and plans with great facility, and the opposition was tame and spiritless. Burke called it a "tedious session." But though there was peace at home, the clouds of distant war were gathering fast and thick in the horizon, threatening ere long to pour out their fury throughout the breadth and length of the American colonies. The storm arising out of the various schemes for taxing the colonists was now increased by the attempt of lord North at taking the payment of the colonial judges and governors out of the hands of the assembly. The Americans declared that this was an attempt of the British government to impose its own arbitrary instruments upon them, to destroy the very essence of their charters and liberties by making the judges and governors independent of the people, and dependent only on the crown. Resistance was resolved upon: a series of protests were issued from the assembly of Boston, and the example was followed by all the assemblies throughout the colonies. In order to make the opposition effectual, a corresponding committee was established, with branches and ramifications which reached nearly every town and village throughout the colonies, and the effect of this great lever of the revolution was soon manifested in a general combination of measures, a unanimity of language, and a general persecution of all those who were in favour of the British government. For, disaffected as the colonists generally were, there were still many in America who conceived themselves happy in their connection with Great Britain, and who sought ardently to maintain that connection. Had government been wise they might still have avoided disruption with the colonists, but at this critical moment, when the minds of the people of New England wavered, and when the southern and middle countries were comparatively peaceable, communications were received from England which set the whole country in commotion. The discussions in the British parliament respecting the riotous proceedings of the colonists were anything but conciliatory. Their language advocated coercion only, and this greatly tended to increase the ferment among the colonists. Opposition to the British government grew more bold, and in the midst of the prevailing discontent two cargoes of tea arrived at Boston, which lord North had allowed the East India company to export duty free. But anterior to their arrival the Bostonians had resolved not

565. What events occurred in America at this period?



to receive any tea, whether charged with duty or not, and a body of them, dressed as Mohawk Indians, and armed with muskets, rifles, swords, and cutlasses, watched the ships in order to prevent a single leaf from being put on shore. The ships were, indeed, finally boarded, and the tea chests were split open, and their contents emptied into the sea. When the news of this transaction arrived in England, it excited strong national resentment, and in the session of 1774, bills were unanimously passed, closing the port of Boston, depriving Massachusetts of its charter, and requiring persons charged with capital offences in that province to be sent for trial either to another colony or to the mother country. These measures were forthwith carried into operation. On the 8th of June, as the clock struck twelve, the custom house of Boston was shut up, and all lawful business ceased in its port. Its trade was nominally transferred to Salem, but the spirit of rivalry which had hitherto distinguished American merchants seemed now to be wholly lost in sympathy. The merchants and freeholders of Salem declined to profit by the distress of the refractory Bostonians, representing that they could not be so dead to every idea of justice, and so lost to all feelings of humanity, as to acquire wealth and build up their fortunes upon the ruin of their neighbours. Steps were taken to carry out the bill for regulating the government of Massachusetts Bay; its council was re-organized, but twelve out of the thirty-six selected refused to accept office, and several of those who acceded soon threw up their commissions. All was confusion. The proclamations issued by the governor were disregarded. The Bostonians, indeed, prepared for war; nothing was to be seen or heard of except the purchasing of arms and the manufacturing of ammunition. Alarmed at the menacing attitude of the Bostonians, general Gage fortified Boston Neck, and removed to head quarters all the gunpowder and military stores that were deposited at Charlestown, Cambridge, and other places within the provinces. The people now rose to arms, and though they did not come to blows they obstructed the works at Boston Neck by burning the materials by night, sinking the boats laden with bricks, and overturning the trucks laden with timber. The whole colony of the Massachusetts was in commotion, and the flames of rebellion spread rapidly throughout all the provinces from Massachusetts to South Carolina; North Carolina only appeared to be steadfastly loyal to the British crown.

565. What bills were passed by the legislature respecting Boston and the state of Massachusetts? How were their operations met by the Bostonians? What attitude did the colonists assume?



566. *Further measures of Parliament respecting American affairs—Affair of Lexington—Battle of Bunker's Hill, 1775.*

—At the close of 1774 a general election had taken place, chiefly, it would appear, that the sense of the nation might be taken more fully concerning the affairs of America. The step was found to be decidedly hostile to the late proceedings of the Americans. Loyalty seems to have increased at home in proportion as it had decreased in America. All classes united in the opinion that the king, parliament, and country had been insulted by the colonists, and that they deserved chastisement. This was demonstrated on the meeting of parliament. Bills were passed for cutting off the commerce of New England, and their profitable fishery, and for laying similar restrictions on the colonies of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina, for the hostilities they had exhibited through sympathy with the people of New England. Yet there appears to have been a fear that the consequences of coercive measures would be injurious to the interests of the mother country, for, singular enough, lord North himself, who had been the prime instigator of all the bills of pains and penalties against the colonists, moved a resolution in this session to the effect that if any province or colony should in their assemblies pledge themselves to support the civil government and administration of such province or colony, no tax or duties or assessment should be levied on them by the British legislature. The object of this resolution appears to have been designed to separate the grain from the chaff, and to disunite the colonies, and though its fallacy was exposed by some of the members, and especially by Fox, who said that the Americans were not such gudgeons as to be caught with so foolish a bait, it was adopted. Burke proposed a wiser plan of conciliation in a series of resolutions, having for their object a plan to allow all the claims the Americans had set forth in their petitions and declarations, and to undo all that the parliament had done respecting them since the year 1765. Burke's propositions, however, wise and comprehensive as they might have been, met with singular disfavour by the legislature. If they had passed, indeed, they would not now have had the effect of restoring the loyalty of the Americans towards the British crown. Their allegiance was a thing of the past, for

566. What was the general feeling respecting the Americans? What new measures of coercion were passed by parliament to bring them into subjection? What conciliatory resolution was adopted, and what was its design? What was the purport of Burke's resolutions?



while the British legislature were discussing American affairs, the Americans were acting, and that with energy and determination. A quantity of their military stores were deposited at Concord, and an attempt was made by general Gage to seize them in the dead of the night. But the New Englanders were not asleep. The British troops had not marched many miles to carry out the governor's design when their ears were suddenly saluted with the firing of guns and the ringing of bells, the signals for alarm. On arriving at Lexington they found the militia drawn up to receive them. Shots were fired, and some fell on both sides, but the troops proceeded onward and accomplished the object of their expedition. No sooner, however, had they commenced their retrograde march than they found themselves assailed from trees and walls and houses, not only by the militia but by minute men and volunteers, who had poured in from all quarters. Through all their route back to Lexington a destructive fire poured in upon them from enemies they could not reach, and whose presence only was known by the smoke and effect of their rifles. They were driven before the Americans like a flock of sheep, and if a second detachment had not arrived to protect them, the whole body would have been annihilated. Elated with this success, the Americans termed it "the glorious victory of Lexington," and emboldened by it, twenty thousand men formed themselves into a blockade and surrounded Boston. About this time ten thousand troops arrived from Britain under the command of generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton. It might have been supposed that active operations would have been forthwith commenced. On the contrary, however, they were kept on Boston Neck twisting their pigtails and powdering their heads while the Americans were gathering in their front and in their flanks like clouds. On the night of the 16th of June a strong detachment, unchallenged and unobserved, occupied Bunker's Hill, which overlooked the whole of Boston. This was a formidable position, for the hill was soon covered with works, and the troops which occupied them began to fire on Boston Neck and the shipping. Steps were taken to dislodge them, which proved successful; the troops took possession of Bunker's Hill, but not without great loss; 1050 were either killed or wounded, including nearly one hundred commissioned officers, while the Americans scarcely suffered a third part of that loss.

566. What was the nature of the affair at Lexington? What number of troops was sent from Great Britain, and under whose command were they? What was their first operation?



The battle of Bunker's Hill, indeed, was in reality a victory for the Americans, and it gave the English a fearful foreboding of what they would have to encounter.

567. *General Washington — Expeditions to Ticonderago, Crown Point, and Canada—The progress of Rebellion in Virginia—The colony of New York.*—It was necessary for the success of the American arms that a general should be found in whose skill and ability the army could confide. Such a man was found in George Washington, who had distinguished himself in the Canadian war. At first, Washington took no part in the quarrel between England and the colonies, but when the sword had been drawn and blood had been shed, he came forward as the champion of independence. The choice made by congress was favourable to that cause. He was in the prime and vigour of life, and his fame and deportment were such that he could command reverence from the most fanatical part of the American troops, who were disposed to own no other leader except "the Lord of Hosts." It was immediately after the battle of Bunker's Hill that he was appointed commander-in-chief, and when he arrived at head-quarters at Cambridge, he commenced organizing his forces, and collecting military stores. It would have been difficult for him to have done this if the British troops had followed up their success at Bunker's Hill; but, instead of this, they remained in listless inactivity, as though the capture of that hill was a full and final triumph! By Washington's exertions, the British troops were soon completely blockaded by land, while cruisers were sent by congress for the purpose of intercepting military stores. Yet nothing was done to rescue the troops from their perilous situation. Their bands played "God save the king" incessantly, while the Americans, as if in the spirit of mockery, as incessantly responded to the national anthem by playing "Yankee Doodle." But if the British troops were inactive, not so were the Americans. Expeditions were sent against Ticonderago, an important post situate on a promontory, near the junctions of lakes George and Champlain, and the key of communication between New York and Canada; and against the important fortresses of Crown Point and Skenesborough. These expeditions were commanded by Ethan Allen, a puritan of the old school, and his mission was successfully accomplished: all these forts, partly

566. Did they succeed? and what was the result of the battle of Bunker's Hill?

567. What was the character of general Washington? What measures did he adopt on being appointed commander-in-chief? What expeditions were placed under the command of Ethan Allen, and what



by treachery, and partly by skill, were captured. His success encouraged congress to make a bold expedition against Canada. Two bodies of American troops, the one under the command of Montgomery, and the other under that of Arnold, invaded that country. Montgomery captured St. John's and Montreal; and then, uniting his forces with Arnold, laid siege to Quebec. But, in a storm upon this strong city, Montgomery lost his life, and the English remained masters of Canada. In Virginia, the Americans were more successful; the English governors were driven from thence, and the banner of independence waved triumphantly in this fine country. Congress was everywhere vigilant in their plans to secure the final success of their struggle for independence. The state of New York abounded with royalists, and a committee of safety was appointed to take special charge of the provinces. Several regiments of Connecticut men were sent to New York, with the double object of keeping down the royalists and preventing, if possible, the landing of British troops. But congress had greater difficulty in preserving their cause in the state of New York than in any other province in America.

568. *Proceedings in England—Prosecution and Trial of Horne Tooke.*—While America was in arms, England was in a state of agitation. An address of a violent character had recently been presented to the king from the livery of the city against the war with America, and his majesty was so offended at it that he resolved he would not receive any more petitions of the lord mayor and aldermen but in their corporate capacity. Wilkes was now lord mayor, and he converted this into a fresh wrong, and at the next meeting of the common hall, another address, still more violent in its tone, was approved. His majesty declared that he would not receive this petition on the throne, and this being reported to the livery, they resolved that it was a direct denial of their rights; and that the city members should be instructed to move for an impeachment of the advisers of a measure so dangerous to both the king and his people as that of refusing to hear petitions. Subsequently, his majesty received a more moderate remonstrance, drawn up by the common council, but his reply was firm and explicit. "While," he said, "the constitutional authority of this kingdom was openly were their results? What was the result of the expedition against Canada? How did the cause of independence progress in the states of Virginia and New York? What measures did congress adopt to preserve their cause in the latter state?"

568. What disputes arose between the king and the common



resisted by the Americans, he owed it to the rest of his people to enforce those measures by which alone their rights and interests could be maintained." Irritated by such proceedings, government issued a proclamation for suppressing rebellion, seditious correspondence, &c.; but it seems to have had no weight with those to whom it was more especially addressed, namely, certain factious demagogues, who wished to raise themselves into unenviable notoriety. Conspicuous among such a class was one Horne Tooke, who was first the supporter, then the rival, of Wilkes, and, finally, held high in favour among a certain dubious class of patriots. At a meeting of the "Society for Constitutional Information," which had been formed in London from the wreck of the "Bill of Rights Club," Tooke moved that a subscription should be raised for the relief of the widows, orphans, and aged parents of their fellow American citizens, who, preferring death to slavery, were, for this reason only, murdered by the king's troops at Lexington and Concord. This was a strange perversion of facts, and the idea could only have been held by men who were determined, against all reason, to find fault with the acts and deeds of government. The result of Tooke's motion was, that the sum of £100 was raised on the spot, and ordered to be transmitted to Dr. Franklin, now in great repute as a philosopher and an American patriot. The circumstance was scarcely worth noticing, but Tooke was prosecuted by government, and the sentence on him was, that he should pay a fine of £200, suffer imprisonment for one year, and find sureties for his good behaviour during three more. This was just what Tooke wanted. It gave him an opportunity of making a sarcastic speech, and his hopes were elated by the prospect of enjoying equal favour with the public, as his rival John Wilkes had, by similar means, procured.

569. *The Progress of the American Revolution, 1776.*—The British parliament still maintained a warlike attitude. In the session which commenced in the autumn of 1775, and closed in the spring of 1776, Burke made a second proposal to redress the American grievances, but a resolution moved by him to the effect that taxation of the colonies should be renounced, that all obnoxious laws and acts respecting America should be repealed, that there should be a full amnesty for all offences, and that congress should be recognised, was

council? Who was Horne Tooke? For what was he prosecuted? What was his sentence?

569. What new proposition did Burke make to bring about a reconciliation between England and America? What was the prevailing



lost by a majority of two to one. On the other hand, a bill was unanimously passed, prohibiting all commercial intercourse with America—a bill which authorised the commanders of his majesty's navy to make prize of all American ships and goods, whether on the high seas or in harbour, and which comprehended, in its prohibitory sense, every species of commerce along the coast of the confederated states. The general feeling of parliament went along with the prime minister, lord North, whose motto now was, that "if England did not get the better of America, America would get the better of England." It was "war to the knife;" but the ardour of the country gentlemen was somewhat cooled when, in order to sustain the burden of war, North moved that the land tax should be raised to four shillings in the pound. Some of the opposition ironically congratulated the war party upon this, the first fruits of their darling coercive American measures; while others attempted to prove that it would be a perpetual mortgage on their estates. At the seat of war, general Howe had succeeded Gage in the command at Boston. But he was not more successful. During the winter, both armies had undergone many miseries, but the British had suffered the most acutely. When, indeed, Washington commenced offensive operations, it was soon discovered by Howe that his position was untenable. Howe removed his troops to Halifax, and Washington took possession of Boston: a proud triumph for the Americans, especially as the British commander, by a strange oversight, left large quantities of cannon and ammunition behind him, of which Washington stood in great need. Several store-ships also fell into the hands of the Americans, and seven hundred fresh troops, which sailed into the harbour after Howe was gone, were captured. Boston was lost to king George, and, in the second year, the English suffered a considerable loss in a fruitless attack on Charlestown. Howe was more successful, however, in another quarter; for he drove the Americans out of Long Island, and took possession of New York. After this achievement, he made some offers of reconciliation, but they were rejected, and sir Peter Parker and general Clinton took possession of Rhode Island. On the other hand, Washington surprised and took nearly one thousand Hessian troops in the British service prisoners, and captured several stands of arms. In the midst of these operations, Dr. Franklin was sent to the court of Louis XVI.

temper of parliament on the subject? What tax was imposed to enable England to carry on the war? What losses were sustained, and what victories gained on either side during this year? For what was Dr. Franklin sent to France? How did France assist the Ame-



to seek the assistance of France, and though, as France was at peace with England, decorum did not permit open negotiations with rebellious subjects, yet many skilful French officers were allowed to go to America clandestinely, and munitions of war were privately transmitted thither. It was during this eventful year that congress declared the united colonies an independent state, and the fundamental articles of the federal constitution were published. American writers generally attribute this grand idea to Dr. Franklin, but they admit that it was the pen of an English writer that rendered the most effective service in this particular. That pen was wielded by the infidel Thomas Paine, who, at the instance of Franklin, left England, where he had become infamous as a factious, political, and free-thinking writer, to try his fortune in America, a country which now afforded a wide field for the talents of adventurers.

570. *All Americans not revolutionists—The Red Indians. Attempt to fire his Majesty's Dockyard at Portsmouth.*—The Americans were not wholly unanimous in the cause of independence. The inhabitants of the city and island of New York and of Long Island, and various other places, presented petitions to general Howe, declaring that they acknowledged the supremacy of Great Britain, and praying to be received into the king's peace and protection. On the removal of congress, also, from Philadelphia to Baltimore, the majority of the Philadelphians openly declared for the king's cause. Moreover, many of the towns of the Jerseys sent deputations to the king's commissioners, and expressed their anxiety for a renewed allegiance to the British crown. There was still hope, therefore, that England would in the end conquer. And England had at this time some assistance from another quarter. Our establishments for the management of the affairs of the tribes of the Red Indians being withdrawn, they were left to act as they pleased. They had a long account to settle with the Americans, for from the earliest period of their emigration the colonists had laid it down as a principle that the red men were to be exterminated, and they had done their utmost to annihilate them. Hence, as the Indians were accurate accountants in matters of blood, deeming it a sacred part of their religion, that they were bound to avenge

americans? What celebrated declaration did congress promulgate this year? To whom was the idea of this declaration ascribed, and who was Thomas Paine?

570. In what states of America did the people exhibit signs of a return of loyalty? What principle did the colonists maintain respecting the Red Indians? How did these Indians retaliate upon the



their kindred; no sooner were our agents withdrawn from their settlements, than the Creek and Cherokee Indians commenced ravaging the back territories of Virginia and the Carolinas. They were repulsed by the militia, but not before they had taken a terrible revenge for long-endured wrongs. Congress, therefore, had other foes to contend with than British troops: foes from within and without. But although many of its members doubted that the contest would soon be over, yet, *as a body*, they remained firm and hopeful: betraying neither despondency nor lack of spirit. The powers of Washington were enlarged by them, and they adopted all possible means to get money into the treasury, and to inspire courage into the hearts of the people. As for their committee of correspondence, they laboured ardently to induce France and Spain to espouse their quarrel, and secret agents were sent into those countries for that purpose. One of them, one Silas Deane, an American agent in France, appears to have been the prime instigator of an act of treachery, which, had it been carried into effect, might have proved of disastrous consequences to England. A plot was discovered which had for its object the destruction by fire of his majesty's dockyard at Portsmouth. The man selected to perpetrate this treacherous design was known by the name of John the Painter. He was an Englishman by birth, but he had long resided in America, and he travelled from thence through France to Portsmouth to carry out his object. Combustibles were compounded and prepared, but John the Painter was detected, and condemned and executed. From his own confession it was elicited that Silas Deane was cognizant of his design, and that he had promised him a reward of great price when his work should be done. As Choiseul, the French minister, had, in 1764, concocted such a plan, and as his animus was well known, it was thought that *he* also was connected with this matter, though nothing transpired to inculpate him. The effect of this circumstance was further to excite the enmity of the English people towards the Americans.

571. *Letters of marque and reprisal—Chatham's motion for concession—Successes of Washington—British expedition up the Hudson river—Battle of the Brandywine—Capture of Philadelphia by Howe—Expedition and Capture of Burgoyne*

Americans for the wrongs they had endured; and what was the effect of their incursion? What measures did congress take to meet their difficulties? To what countries did they send their agents? What was the nature of the attempt to destroy the docks at Portsmouth, and who was connected with it? What was the effect of this design?



—*Clinton's Expedition up the Hudson, 1777.*—On the meeting of parliament a bill was passed granting letters of marque and reprisal against the Americans, whose privateers were now swarming among our West Indian islands, and even in the seas of Europe. Another bill was passed, giving the king permission to secure and detain all persons charged with, or suspected of, the crime of high treason in America, or on the high seas, or of piracy. The earl of Chatham, who had hitherto been one of the sturdiest advocates of war, now moved for an address for the immediate cessation of hostilities, but there were few who supported him, and his motion was negatived. It seems clear that Chatham had been imposed upon by Dr. Franklin, who had led him to believe that the Americans were not aiming at independence. But that they *were* aiming at independence was a fact known to all the world. Every act in the council and in the field proclaimed it in the plainest possible manner. While Franklin was endeavouring by his pen to controvert it, every nerve was strained for its accomplishment. The operations of the war this year were various. Washington obtained a signal success over the British troops on the banks of the Delaware, and though he was afterwards obliged to retreat, he reached Princetown in safety. A British expedition was sent up the Hudson's river to cut off Washington's supplies, but they encountered severe opposition, and great loss was suffered on both sides, beyond which the expedition was fruitless. The Americans were more successful in their expedition to Long Island, where they set fire to the store-houses, and some of the shipping, and took many prisoners, returning in triumph to Connecticut. In June General Howe took the field, and a battle was fought between the hostile forces on the eastern side of the river Brandywine, which falls into the Delaware, in which Howe was victorious. Washington, however, kept his corps together, and retreated to Philadelphia, where he collected his troops to defend the city. But it was in vain. Howe, by skill and energy, drove him from thence, and took possession of Philadelphia, where the majority of the people were still well affected towards the mother-country. By the capture of Philadelphia a communication was facilitated between

571. What was the object of the bill granting letters of marque and reprisal? What motion did the earl of Chatham make for concession, and under what erroneous impression did he labour? Where did Washington defeat the British troops? What resulted from the British expedition up the Hudson river? What resulted from the American expedition to Long Island? Where did Howe gain a victory over Washington? What city did he afterwards capture? What resulted from the capture of Philadelphia? What great disaster befell



the northern and southern provinces, and nothing was required for an active co-operation between the army and navy but the opening of the Delaware. A series of operations were commenced for that purpose, which, after several stern conflicts with the enemy, was effected: a free communication was established along the whole course of the Delaware. But these successes were counterbalanced by the failure of an expedition, under general Burgoyne, to Hudson's river, for the purpose of cutting off all communication between the northern and southern colonies. After undergoing many hardships, and encountering many difficulties, Burgoyne and his whole army, amounting to 10,000 men, and consisting of the finest British and German troops engaged in this terrible war, were captured: a great loss at this juncture, for on these troops the proudest hopes had been built. Shorn of their honours, this fine army was sent to Boston, while several thousands of the victorious Americans joined the ranks of Washington. General Clinton had been despatched with fresh troops to make a diversion in favour of Burgoyne, but he arrived too late, for the capitulation had been already signed, and the troops disarmed. Clinton, however, captured several forts, and obliged the Americans to burn their navy. He was everywhere victorious, but the main design of his diversion failed, and his successes served chiefly to prove that had Howe co-operated with Burgoyne, and sailed up the Hudson during the summer months, the campaign in this quarter, instead of being disastrous to the British arms, would have enhanced their reputation. The intelligence of Burgoyne's defeat was greatly deplored in England, and in the autumn session of parliament it gave the opposition a fine opportunity of animadverting on the measures which had been taken by government to bring the American colonies into subjection. But the opposition were still in a minority: the voice of the nation and the parliament was still for war. The universal cry was, more blood, more blood, and still more blood!—a cry which no reasoning, declamation, or reverses could hush.

572. *The Cause of America espoused by France—The Earl of Chatham's last appearance in the House of Lords—General Military and Naval Operations, 1778.*—England redoubled her exertions to carry on the contest with America. The nation burned with ardour to blot out the recollection of Burgoyne's defeat by deeds of arms, and by the utter re-  
the British army on the Hudson? What was the result of Clinton's expedition to relieve Burgoyne? How was the news of Burgoyne's defeat and capture received in England?



duction of the rebellious colonists. Private subscriptions were opened, and 15,000 troops were raised and equipped without any cost or charge to government. Ships, also, were armed to cruise in the channel, where American privateers, and Frenchmen with American colours, had now become numerous. These exertions were alike the result of fear and of animosity. For it cannot be denied that *fear* had seized upon the nation. Even lord North, the stern advocate for war, and its prime originator, astonished the house by declaring himself adverse to a continuation of the contest, and by bringing in two bills, which were passed, tending to the reconciliation of the colonists. But the contest continued, and that more fiercely than ever. The enemies of England multiplied and grew. France, predisposed towards the cause of America, this year not only acknowledged, but entered into an alliance with the republic. This was a matter of grave debate in parliament. Some of the leaders of the opposition became convinced that the only possibility of detaching America from France, was by acknowledging the Americans independent. Such a proposition was made in the lords, and it was on this occasion that the earl of Chatham, the great orator of the times, made his last appearance in parliament. He had been long suffering from illness, and wrapped in flannel and supported by crutches, he came down to the house to oppose such a humiliating proposition. His last oration was one of great power, concluding with these memorable words, "Let us at least make one more effort, and if we must fall, let us fall like men!" Having thus entered his protest against the dismemberment of the empire, and exhausted by the effort he had made to sustain its honour, this great Demosthenes of the age was carried from the house and taken down to his favourite villa of Hayes, in Kent, where he died. On his removal from the house, the members adjourned in silence, and nothing more was done. War continued, and its events thickened. War was, indeed, now declared against France as well as America. It was carried on with mutual animosity. The whole of Georgia was reduced by the British forces, and Savannah was captured. A sea fight took place off Ushant, between a British fleet under admiral Keppel, and a French fleet under count d'Orvilliers; and though the French suffered most in killed and wounded, there was neither victory nor defeat on either

572. How did the public support government at this period? What was the character of Chatham's last speech in parliament? How was the war carried on between the contending parties? What sea fight took place? Who commanded an expedition against Canada, and



side. Encouraged by the support of France, when the commissioners arrived in America, who had been appointed under lord North's conciliatory bills, congress paid no attention to their communications. They had arrived too late to effect any reconciliation. At the time of their arrival, the British had just defeated an expedition to Canada under the command of the general Lafayette; a warm-hearted and still warmer-headed young Frenchman, who had recently embarked in the cause of the colonists. Lafayette narrowly escaped destruction with the whole of his troops: Washington's skill and sagacity alone saved him. This was the last military operation over which general Howe presided. He was succeeded by sir Henry Clinton, who assumed the command at the time the head-quarters of Howe became untenable. It being known that count d'Estang was at sea with a considerable French force to aid the Americans, Clinton resolved to withdraw his troops from the capital of Pennsylvania. His march was encumbered by a long train of royalists, who feared the vengeance of congress, and their progress was consequently slow. In their route, Clinton was attacked by the forces under Washington, at a place called Freehold Court House, near Monmouth; but the attack was repulsed with considerable slaughter, and Clinton reached New York in safety, taking up his position on the borders of the Hudson. The Americans, combined with the French, met with another repulse in an attack on Rhode Island: the attempt on that island signally failed, and the American commander laid all the blame on the French admiral d'Estang, who refused to land his forces to assist in the enterprise. In the district of Wyoming, a spot celebrated for its lovely scenery, the Americans under Zebulon Butler met with a terrible reverse by an army of Red Indians. In a conflict with these fierce and terrible savages, they were defeated and fled. Throwing away their rifles and muskets, the Indians fell upon the fugitives with their tomahawks, and heeded not the loud cry for quarter and mercy. Only a few escaped; and the lovely district of Wyoming was desolated and depopulated. Hostilities occurred this year in other quarters. France had not engaged in the war solely with the view of aiding America. On the contrary, the principal aim of the French cabinet was aggrandisement. A scheme had been

what were its results? What successes attended the British arms in America this year? What reverses did the British arms sustain? Who succeeded general Howe in the command? Why did Clinton evacuate Philadelphia, and what happened in his retreat? What ravages did the Red Indians commit in Wyoming? What was the



devised for capturing all the sugar plantations of Great Britain. Dominica was attacked by a French force under the marquis de Bouillé, and after a gallant defence, the governor of that island found himself compelled to capitulate. But the British had their revenge. They captured St. Lucie belonging to the French, and also recaptured the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, which had been ceded to the French at the peace of 1763.

573. *Parliamentary Proceedings—Rupture with Spain—Attempt upon Gibraltar—The French and English Fleets in the Channel, 1778-9.*—At the meeting of parliament in November, little notice was taken of the war operations in America. His majesty, however, bitterly complained of the unprovoked hostility of the court of France, and alluded to the warlike preparations of Spain,—remarking that, however friendly that court might seem to be in her diplomacy, it was a subject requiring attention. Attacks were made by the opposition on the managers of the war office and the admiralty, both on account of the incompetency, supposed or real, of some of the commanders appointed; as admirals Keppel and Palliser, and general and lord Howe; and of the inefficiency of the forces by land and sea. Every defeat and failure of attack was attributed to want of skill and mismanagement, forgetting that the chances of war are proverbially uncertain: that “the battle is not to the strong, nor the race to the swift.” It certainly was necessary that the commanders of the army and navy should, at this critical period, have been men of skill and courage, and the forces employed adequate to the mighty struggle in which they were engaged, for the enemies of England still multiplied. While the house was sitting, the Spanish ambassador, after delivering a hostile manifesto to the secretary of state, suddenly quitted London. In virtue of the family compact, Spain joined the arms of France. The manifesto delivered by the Spanish ambassador contained nearly one hundred grievances: one of the most prominent being, that Great Britain had insulted Spain by rejecting her mediation: a mediation which evidently had for its object the rupture between the two nations. The grand cause of quarrel, however, appears to have been, that the British ministry would not give up the “old

principal aim of the French government in commencing the war? What island did they take from the British, and what islands did the British take from the French?

573. What proceeding occurred in the parliament of 1778-9? What new enemy had the British to contend with? What was the cause of the rupture with Spain? What operations did the Spaniards com-



rock " of Gibraltar to his Spanish majesty, for a proposition had been made, that if they would restore it, Spain would remain neutral. After war was declared, the first thoughts of the Spaniards were directed to the siege of that wonderful rock. A large army was collected at St. Roques, Algesiras, and the Campo near Gibraltar, and this force commenced laborious operations for its reduction. Not a gleam of success, however, attended their attempts during this year; the "old rock " with its gallant garrison, sternly mocked their efforts. Equally fruitless was an attempt made by the French and Spanish fleet combined, to effect a landing on the English coasts. Their fleet appeared off Plymouth, but a strong east wind drove it out of the channel, and admiral Hardy, who had been cruising in the soundings with a fleet of thirty-eight sail, shortly after proudly anchored at Spithead, and England was safe. The whole coast was also speedily covered with troops, volunteers and militia, while fresh ships were fitted out, and cruisers at sea were recalled to the channel. The French and Spanish fleet sailed for Brest, where thousands of the sailors died from a terrible sickness. During the year, indeed, the Spanish monarch had reason to deplore his rashness in entering into this war, for several Spanish ships laden with treasures were captured by the British.

574. *The Transatlantic war—Spanish incursions—Action between Paul Jones and Captain Pearson.*—During this year, 1779, the transatlantic war was carried on with varied success. In the West Indies the French captured the islands of St. Vincent and Grenada. Off the latter island a sea-fight took place between the British, under admiral Byron, and the French, under count d'Estang; several British ships were disabled, but the French lost 3200 men in killed and wounded. In America an ineffectual attempt was made by the Americans, aided by a French fleet, to reduce Savannah. After sustaining great loss, the allies abandoned the siege, and d'Estang had scarcely re-embarked, when his fleet was dispersed by a storm: some of his ships reached the West Indies, but the count himself sailed for France. An incursion was made by the British by land and sea into Virginia, where the fleet captured several American vessels, and the army destroyed Fort Nelson, the great defence of the American dockyard at Gosport, and several important towns. The British captured Stoney Point and Verplanks on the

mence, and were they successful? By whom were the English coasts threatened, and what was the result? What disasters to Spain occurred during the year?

574. What were the principal events this year of the transatlantic



Hudson, and laid in ashes Newhaven and Fairfield in Connecticut. A British expedition to the Bay of Penobscot was equally successful: after scattering an American fleet in the Bay to the four winds, and capturing many prisoners, a post was established at its mouth with the double purpose of checking the incursions of the people of Massachusetts Bay into Nova Scotia, and to obtain ship-timber for the use of the king's yards at Halifax and other royal ports in America. In West Florida the Spaniards captured a British fort at the mouth of the Ibbeville, and plundered the principal establishment of the British at St. George's Key, in the bay of Honduras. This post was, however, quickly recaptured, and the Spaniards were driven from all that part of the coast. Shortly after, the British captured the strong Spanish fortress of St. Fernando de Omas, and took a galleon in the harbour laden with quicksilver and other treasures of the estimated value of 3,000,000 dollars. The hardest-fought contest this year took place in the open sea between two vessels, the one commanded by Paul Jones, and the other by captain Pearson. Paul Jones was a native of Scotland, and the son of a gardener at Galloway. At the opening of the war he offered his service to congress, and at this time he had acquired the name of the best of all corsair captains. He commanded a French-built ship under American colours, and cruized near the coasts of Great Britain. His exploits were numerous, and his name became synonymous with all that is terrible. His great object this year was to intercept the Baltic trade, which was under the convoy of captain Pearson, in the *Serapis*, of 40 guns, and captain Piercy, in the *Countess of Scarborough*, with 20 guns. This fleet arrived safely off the Yorkshire coast when Paul Jones appeared to encounter it. He had three vessels under his command, but the grand contest lay between the *Bonhomme Richard*, in which Jones was, and the *Serapis*. The action was fought with the most determined fury, and captain Pearson, at the end of two hours, had the best of the battle, but the *Countess of Scarborough* having been disabled, one of the frigates came to the assistance of the bold corsair, and the British commander was compelled to strike his colours. The *Bonhomme Richard*, however, was in such a condition at the close of the engagement, that Paul Jones was obliged to quit her, and she sank with a great number of her wounded on board. The prizes were carried into the Texel, and the victor war? What incursions were made by the Spaniards? What reverses did they sustain? What noted sea-fight took place off the coast of Yorkshire, and what were its particulars and results?



received the thanks of both the French and American governments.

575. *The affairs of Ireland—Economical reform—Political altercations—Riots in London, 1780.*—Ireland had been misgoverned for centuries, but in the autumn session of parliament of 1779 opposition attributed every mischief in that country to lord North's ministry. Ireland was considered, indeed, a vulnerable point in the phalanx of the ministry, and although a rebellious spirit was displayed not only in the Irish parliament house, but throughout the whole length and breadth of the kingdom, sentiments were uttered by lord North's opponents which were well calculated to drive the people of Ireland into open rebellion. The charges brought against ministers were as unwise as they were unjust, which was fully proved by lord North in his reply, who showed that Irish grievances had originated in ages long since past, and the restrictions upon its trade and industry arose from the general system of trade: a system conceived in ignorance and founded in prejudice, and so confirmed by habit that it became part and parcel of the constitution. Yet North was not deaf to the voice of opposition, for in the midst of the clamour raised against the ministry he propounded and carried these three propositions: a free export of wool, woollens, and wool flocks—a free export of glass and all kinds of manufactured glass—and a free trade with all the British plantations on certain conditions. This silenced opposition on the affairs of Ireland, but while he was endeavouring to allay the bad passions of the Irish people, a spirit of disaffection arose in England. There was a long, loud, and universal cry in the country for economical reform, and it became the subject of debate in both houses of parliament. The expenses of government were no doubt great, but they were expenses which were for the most part unavoidable. Burke brought in a series of resolutions for retrenchment, but the only result was the abolition of the board of trade, by which the country was saved the paltry sum of £6000 per annum! The political altercations in this session were of the most serious nature: bitter language was used on both sides, and duels were the consequence. Even the throne itself was attacked; for a resolution was moved in this session to this effect: "That the influence of the crown had decreased, was decreasing, and ought to be diminished," a resolution which failed, but

575. What charges were brought against ministers respecting Ireland? What measures passed in parliament for the relief of the Irish? On what subject was the population of England disaffected? What noted resolution was proposed in the commons, and how was it sup-



which, nevertheless, to the astonishment of the people, was supported by a large party who had hitherto advocated in the warmest manner the war with America. Troubles thickened and increased. In 1778 an act was passed for relieving the Roman Catholics from some of the heavier penalties inflicted upon them in the preceding century. This measure only affected the papists in England, but it was now contemplated that the papists in Scotland, who were more grievously oppressed than in any other part of the kingdom, should be admitted into the benefits of the repealing act. The people of Scotland, however, were not so liberal in their sentiments as those of England. A cry that popery was about to be re-established was heard throughout the country, and the preachers made the pulpits ring with warnings and comminations. The universal cry throughout all Scotland was "No Popery!" a cry that was re-echoed by a certain class of enthusiasts in London itself. In the metropolis, indeed, the cry gave rise to a serious riot, which is known in history by the name of the Lord George Gordon riot, that nobleman assuming to himself the championship of protestantism! The parliament house was surrounded by the mob, and bishops, lords, and commons, were severely maltreated; while whole streets of houses were ransacked, and many buildings destroyed by fire. The Bank of England was attacked, and every prison in London, except the Compter, was demolished. It was not till after the military assailed the mob, and many lives were lost, that the riot was quelled. Lord George Gordon was afterwards tried for the part he had taken in the disturbances, but he was acquitted on the ground of insanity; of which he afterwards gave undoubted proof by turning Jew! He died in Newgate, where he was subsequently imprisoned for various libels on foreign potentates.

576. *Admiral Rodney's success against the Spaniards—Armed neutrality—War with Holland—The war operations in America, &c.*—As Spain persevered in the siege of Gibraltar, and as its treaty with the Barbary states stopped the supplies of provisions, the garrison began to feel the effects of famine. Admiral Rodney, therefore, was sent to their relief. He had only been a few days at sea, when he fell in with a rich Spanish convoy, consisting in the whole of twenty-two vessels: these were all captured, and while he took those with him,

ported? What subject agitated the minds of the people of Scotland? To what did the cry of "No Popery" give rise in London? What were the effects of this riot? Who was its leader, and what was his end?

576. What success did admiral Rodney obtain over the Spaniards?



which were laden with provisions, the rest were sent to England. On hearing of this disaster, the Spanish court sent a large fleet, under Admiral Don Juan de Langara, to recapture the transports, but Rodney encountered the Don near Cape St. Vincent, took several of his ships, and destroyed others, while the rest escaped in a shattered condition to Cadiz. These successes greatly added to the naval renown of England, and the name of Rodney filled every breast with hope and confidence. But the high hopes entertained by the people of England were soon doomed to be modified by the prospect of new enemies, some of whom were more powerful than those already in array against their country. A strong combination was, indeed, formed against England by several powers, constituting what is called in history "The Armed Neutrality." From the commencement of the war England had exercised the right of stopping and searching all neutral vessels, it being known that large shipments of ammunition, materials of war, and *supplies*, were clandestinely sent to America by neutral states. This involved the country in many quarrels, and Russia, Prussia, Denmark, Holland, Sweden, &c., entered into a league, pledging themselves to maintain the principle "that free ships make free goods: arms and munitions of war excepted." About the same time, also, a formidable coalition was formed by the native powers of India, under French influence, for driving the British from their territories. England, at this period, therefore, had almost the whole world arrayed against her openly or covertly, while within her own bosom she was destined to suffer from faction. Before the year closed war was proclaimed by England against Holland: that state having, from the very commencement of the American war, secretly favoured the cause of the colonists by seeking a commercial advantage in supplying some of their wants at the expense of the commerce and interests of England: the advantages of a contraband trade making the Dutch regardless of the faith of treaties and of every other consideration. In the meantime several actions had occurred between the old belligerent powers both by sea and land. Rodney encountered the French fleet, under Admiral de Guichen, off St. Lucie, but all he effected was to separate the enemy's fleet into two unequal parts. His failure arose from the fact that political party spirit ruled in the fleet, for his signal for every ship to bear down and attack the rear of the French was disobeyed, and his apparently certain victory

What was the nature and origin of the Armed Neutrality? Why did England proclaim war with Holland? What successes attended the



was therefore frustrated by the conduct of his own captains. One of these captains was tried by a court-martial, and dismissed the service, which had the effect of restoring discipline, but the opportunity which he had sought of destroying the French fleet was lost: soon after de Guichen was joined by the Spanish fleet, under Admiral Don Joseph Solano, and Rodney was obliged to retire. He retired with the conviction that the enemy was strong enough to capture every one of our West Indian islands, but a pestilence broke out among the Spaniards which saved them, and Rodney, conscious that they were safe, after detaching a portion of his force to Jamaica, sailed for New York. While Rodney was thus bravely supporting the British flag on the ocean, the British arms were equally successful in America. General Clinton, in South Carolina, captured Charlestown, and nearly seven thousand soldiers became prisoners of war: four hundred pieces of ordnance, and a large quantity of naval stores, fell into the hands of the victors. In every part of South Carolina the people seemed willing to submit to king George. The American general, Gates, was sent by congress to drive the British out of that state, but he was driven from thence by Lord Cornwallis, who, following up his successes, marched into North Carolina, where he again defeated the American forces, and took possession of Charlottetown, but afterwards retreated to South Carolina, where he awaited reinforcements. On the side of New York a variety of petty enterprises were undertaken by the American forces, under the superintendence of Washington, but they were generally defeated by the British. The army of Washington was not in a condition to undertake any bold and decisive movement, and though he was joined by six thousand veteran troops from France, under the command of count de Rochambeau, they came too late in the season to effect anything of importance. Before anything could be done, the arrival of admiral Graves gave the superiority to the British, and all that the French and Americans did was to quarrel with each other. The Americans complained of the tardiness of the French, and the French retorted that the American army was not ready to co-operate. But the successes of the British were not without some alloy. In the European seas British commerce, during this year, suffered greatly. In the channel admiral Geary captured twelve French merchantmen, but a rich convoy for the East and West Indies were intercepted by the combined fleets of

British arms in America? In what condition was Washington's army? What reverses did the British meet with in the European seas?



the enemy, and nearly fifty merchant ships, richly laden with naval, military, and other stores, were taken by them and carried into Cadiz. Fourteen outward-bound ships from Quebec were also captured by some American privateers off the banks of Newfoundland. These reverses spread a gloom over the nation. The losses sustained, in their nearer or more remote consequences, affected all classes of society.

*577. Parliamentary proceedings—Attack on Jersey—Gibraltar relieved—Revolt in Washington's camp—Expedition to Virginia—Siege and capture of York Town by Washington—Attack on Minorca by the Dutch—Naval action with the Dutch, and capture of St. Eustatius—Other operations, 1781.*

—At the close of the year 1780 a general election took place, but the relative position of political parties in the house remained nearly the same, except that a few of the popular members of opposition had lost their seats. The war had not lost any of its popular character, for the successes gained more than counterbalanced the reverses met with, and both gave rise to renewed exertion. In parliament opposition denied that the successes of the recent campaign were likely to prove decisive, but they were generally unheeded. Fox made a proposition that his majesty's ministers should take immediate steps to conclude a peace with the colonies, but after a warm debate his motion was rejected. The voice of the king, parliament, and nation, was still for a continuance of hostilities, and liberal supplies were granted, and new taxes imposed to enable ministers to continue them with unrelenting vigour. There was no flinching in the matter. Burke renewed his proposition for economical reform, but although he was ably supported by William Pitt, son of the earl of Chatham, his motion was negatived by a large majority. It was clear that the war could not be carried on without large supplies of gold and silver, and it was freely granted. Parliament was prorogued on the 18th of July, at which time war was raging on every hand. An attack was made upon the island of Jersey by the French, under the baron de Rullecourt, but though its little capital was captured by night, it was afterwards recovered, and the whole French force, amounting to eight hundred, were either killed or taken prisoners. At the commencement of the year the garrison of Gibraltar were again reduced to great straits by the perseverance of the Spaniards, but admiral Darby successfully conveyed a convoy of provisions and stores to them, which was hailed with tran-

577. What proceedings took place in parliament in 1781? What was the result of the French attack on Jersey? What happened in



sports of joy by the half-famished soldiers on their rocky heights. The year opened with prospects of success in America. In Washington's camp all discipline seemed to be at an end. Many of the troops revolted, but congress healed the breach by tempting offers, and order was restored. An expedition was made by general Arnold into Virginia, where he destroyed many towns, and destroyed a large amount of American property. This expedition was followed by another, under lord Cornwallis, who carried on the work of destruction with impunity, and defeated Lafayette, capturing all his cannon. Having effected these achievements, he proceeded to York town, on York river, which he fortified. But at this place he met with a signal reverse. York town was besieged by Washington, and after a gallant defence, Cornwallis was compelled to capitulate: York town and Gloucester point were given up; the troops being surrendered to Washington, and the ships and seamen in the harbour to the French admiral, count de Grasse, who had co-operated in the siege. In Europe the Spaniards not only continued the siege of Gibraltar, but also undertook the reduction of Minorca. An expedition was fitted out with great skill and caution, and the duke of Crillon was appointed to the command. He laid siege to Fort St. Philip, but though he was reinforced in the course of the autumn by four thousand French troops, with good artillery and engineer officers, and though disease thinned the ranks of the besieged, the fort still remained in the hands of the British. While the French and Spanish fleets were menacing the English coasts, a dreadful sea-fight took place between the British and the Dutch. On returning from the Baltic with a convoy of merchant vessels, rear-admiral Sir Hyde Parker fell in with admiral Zouttman, with a convoy of Dutch traders, off Dogger Bank. The hostile fleets approached each other within pistol shot in gloomy silence, and ranged abreast of each other, they fought for four hours without intermission. The slaughter on each side was terrible, and the action did not cease till both the fleets were disabled. They lay-to for some time repairing damages, which, when effected, Zouttman bore away for the Texel. By this victory of Parker, the voyage of the Dutch to the Baltic was abandoned, and their valuable carrying trade was for this year annihilated. The Dutch also met with a severe punishment for their perfidious conduct at the hands of admiral Rodney,

Washington's camp? How was the revolt quelled? What resulted from the expeditions into Virginia? What town did Washington capture? What was the result of the Dutch operations against Minorca? What noted sea-fight took place? What successes did the



who, in conjunction with general Vaughan, captured the island of St. Eustatius. Merchandize to the value of three millions sterling, stored up in the island, fell into the hands of the British; and two hundred and fifty vessels, with much valuable property on board, were captured in the port. A fleet, also, of thirty Dutch West Indiamen that had just sailed for Europe was pursued, and every vessel taken. Subsequently a considerable number of Dutch, French, and American vessels were decoyed into the harbour, and fell into the hands of the conquerors; and several other Dutch islands were reduced, the most important being those situate on the rivers Demerara and Essequibo in Guiana, which, after losing all their shipping, submitted to the governor of Barbadoes. Several Dutch settlements, likewise, on the coast of Coromandel, and the islands of Sumatra, belonging to the French and Dutch, were captured. The British cabinet aimed at dispossessing the Dutch of the Cape of Good Hope, but an expedition sent out for that purpose failed: the French having sent a superior force for its defence. Its commander, however, commodore Johnstone, fell in with five Dutch East Indiamen, richly laden, four of which he captured: the other was destroyed. In the West Indies the French captured the island of Tobago, the only loss of importance sustained in this eventful year, York town only excepted. But though the arms of the British had thus proved victorious in almost all parts of the world, there was still cause for apprehension. Everywhere the British cabinet were frustrated in their designs and endeavours to gain friends and allies. No nation came to the aid of England, and she still had to contend with her numerous foes alone: foes whose bitterness increased as war unfolded its horrors, and whose end and aim was to see her in the dust.

578. *Attacks on the ministry, and resignation of Lord North—Marquis of Rockingham prime minister—Changes in the ministry—Victory of Rodney—The war in America—Maritime events—Relief of Gibraltar—Prospect of peace, 1782.*—The session of parliament which commenced in the autumn of 1781, and closed in July, 1782, was chiefly characterised by attacks on the ministry. In both houses amendments were moved to the address, in the debates on which the conduct of ministers in persisting to carry on the war was arraigned in the most violent manner. These amendments

British arms meet with in the war with the Dutch? What island did the French capture? In what situation was England at the close of the year?

578. By what was the session of 1781-2 characterised? What changes occurred in the ministry?



were negatived by large majorities, but the opposition renewed their attacks, and they became so bitter, that lord North retired from the storm, together with all the members of his cabinet. Lord Surrey had given notice of a resolution "that the house could no longer confide in ministers," but when he was called upon to move it, North rose and coldly told the house that it was not necessary, as both he and his colleagues had tendered their resignation. A new ministry was formed, under the leadership of the marquess of Rockingham: Fox and other members of the opposition occupying subordinate positions in the cabinet. The conditions on which the new ministry consented to hold office were these:—peace with the Americans, and their independence, if necessary to its attainment; reform in the several branches of the civil list expenditure, and the diminution of the influence of the crown. These were hard conditions to impose on such a monarch as George III., and it was clear that the ministry could not possess his confidence. Indeed, it was soon found that ministers had no confidence in each other. In their ranks were two parties: those who contended for the complete emancipation of the colonists, and those who, while they wished for peace, still desired to sustain the supremacy over the colonies. This gave rise to discord: the first party, called the Rockinghams, abused the other, called the Shelburnes, for want of good faith; and their reply was that they were in no ways pledged to go the whole length of the conditions on which the cabinet was formed. In the midst of their strifes the marquess of Rockingham died, which put an end to the cabinet, and lord Shelburne was placed at its head. Fox and the other Rockinghams resigned, and new appointments were made, the most remarkable of which was that of William Pitt, who, although only twenty-three years of age, became chancellor of the exchequer. In the meantime, while parliament was quarrelling about the continuance of war, it continued with unmitigated fury. Our soldiers and sailors were everywhere, except in America, where the war languished, contending with the enemies of the country with ardour and heroism. In the West Indies Rodney had the opportunity he had long wished for—that of meeting the French fleet, under count de Grasse. That fleet, combined with that of Spain, had recently captured all our leeward islands, except Barbadoes and Antigua. An expedition was projected by them against Jamaica, and Rodney sailed, with the whole British

578. What victory did Rodney obtain, and how was the news received in England?



fleet, to St. Lucie, to prevent its capture. He found the French fleet at Dominique, and an action was fought, in which the French lost ten ships of the line and two frigates. The victory was considered as one of the most decisive ever obtained by the naval prowess of Britain, and the intelligence of it excited great exultation among all ranks of people. So great, indeed, was the impression which this success made upon the public mind, that Rodney's praise resounded from one end of the kingdom to the other: and many a "Rodney's head" on wayside inns met the gaze of travellers, both in towns and villages, throughout England. The defeat of de Grasse caused great consternation in America, and although the surrender of lord Cornwallis had virtually terminated the war, yet the republican party believed that, unless France sent them more men and money, they were as far off from peace and independence as ever. Even Washington, whose forces were disaffected from privations and hardships, wrote to congress, in plain language, that "it was high time for peace." Yet while the American forces in the south were in this desperate condition, the British troops undertook no new expedition. On the contrary, under the impression that with their diminished forces it would have been folly to renew the strife, or even to maintain their position, they evacuated Charlestown: the American army entering it as the British rear-guard took its departure. In the West Indies, after the victory gained by Rodney, the war languished. The French and Spaniards took several defenceless settlements, and the latter effected the conquest of the Bahama islands; but on the other hand the British captured some forts on the Mosquito shores from the Spaniards, and took Acra, on the coast of Africa, from the Dutch. During the year France, Spain, and Holland, equipped seventy ships of the line for active service, in order to reduce the maritime superiority of Britain. All their designs, however, were frustrated. Admiral Barrington captured two French ships of the line, with ten large transports and a schooner, and admiral Howe prevented the junction of the Dutch fleet with that of the allies, and terrified them into a relinquishment of their designs on the trade of Great Britain to the Baltic. The greatest achievement of the British arms, however, during this year, occurred at Gibraltar: greater even than Rodney's victory over the French fleet, because it destroyed the hopes which Spain had

578. In what condition were the British and American forces? What events occurred in the West Indies? What design did France, Spain, and Holland entertain? How was that design frustrated? What noted



long cherished of recovering that rock, the price of which is above all value to a commercial country. The besieging army on land, under the duke of Crillon, now numbered forty thousand men, and he had more artillery with him than had ever been collected on so narrow a point. Success seemed so certain, that princes of the house of Bourbon, and French and Spanish nobles, flocked to the vicinity of the "old rock" to witness the final triumph. To ensure that triumph, floating batteries were constructed so as to be impervious to shot, and indestructible by fire. As the garrison could have maintained a fire right on the heads of their assailants, the danger was averted by hanging roofs of strong rope-work netting, laid over with a thick covering of raw hides. To prevent the effect of red-hot balls, a number of pipes were laid through the batteries to convey water through every part, and pumps were provided to keep these pipes constantly supplied. But all ingenuity and precaution were vain. The whole besieging force by land and by sea were estimated at nearly one hundred thousand men, and on the day appointed for operations this large force did all that human effort could perform to achieve a triumph. But the besieged, under general Elliott, were well prepared, and showed themselves as much in earnest as the besiegers: shot was given for shot, and shell for shell. At one time four hundred pieces of artillery were playing on the garrison, and the fire was returned by showers of red-hot balls and shells: the whole peninsula was involved in one terrible blaze. Still there was no impression made upon the rock, and for a time the red-hot balls seemed to make no impression upon the floating batteries. But at length smoke was observed to proceed from one of the batteries, and soon after up rose a sheet of flame which told that the red-hot shots of the garrison had done their work. The fire from the rock was now increased with terrific vengeance, and at midnight the only flashes from the batteries were the flames that were consuming them, and the only cries heard were the shrieks of the crews. One of the batteries blew up, and soon after the whole of them were one vast conflagration. Many of their crews threw themselves into the sea, and, touched by the sight of their distress, the fire of the garrison ceased, and the British sailors who manned a brigade of gunboats under captain Curtis, which had been sweeping the batteries by a fearful fire in the whole extent of their line, ceased firing likewise, and exerted themselves in saving the shrieking and

siege took place this year, and what were its leading operations and results?



despairing Spaniards. The "old rock" was saved, for though the siege was not immediately abandoned, it became evident to the besiegers that all attempts to capture it would prove fruitless. This final attempt upon Gibraltar was, in truth, the last action of importance during the war. Every nation which had been engaged in the mighty struggle now sighed for peace, for each had found, by a review of past events, that although their gains might have been great, their losses had preponderated. Hence, at the close of this year, there was a prospect of peace.

579. *Negotiation for peace—Its preliminaries, 1783.*—The general desire being for peace, negotiations commenced. During the war England had sought the aid of Russia, but to no purpose. It was thought by the empress of that country and her advisers, that England was on the verge of destruction, and that it would be better to let her sink unaided and alone. But the empress now saw that the power of England was such that no attempts of her enemies could destroy it, and Catherine began to act as a fair and anxious mediatrix. Spain demanded Gibraltar as the price of a treaty, but the empress told its monarch that he must give up all idea of obtaining that rock either by arms or treaty; and France, Holland, and the United States were also told by her that they must moderate their pretensions. The greatest obstacle to peace was removed by Great Britain herself; namely, the recognition of American independence. This being done, all other preliminaries were comparatively easy to settle. The articles of peace were signed at Versailles on the 20th of January; and the arrangements of the whole were as follows:—America became free, sovereign, and independent. Great Britain ceded to France the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, St. Lucie and Tobago in the West Indies; Senegal and Gorée in Africa; and Pondicherry with other districts were in part restored, and in part ceded to France. Spain obtained the island of Minorca and the two Floridas; and Holland recovered Trincomalee and other possessions in the East Indies, but ceded Negapatam to Great Britain, and acknowledged the honour of the British flag. On her part Great Britain obtained many islands in the West Indies, previously in the power of France, and likewise fort James and the river Gambia in Africa. She also obtained the right of the navigation of the Mississippi equally with the Americans.

579. What part did the empress of Russia take in negotiations for peace? When were the preliminaries signed, and where? What was the nature of the articles of peace?



from its source to the ocean; and the right of cutting log-wood in the bay of Honduras. The definitive treaties of peace with France, Spain, and the United States were concluded in the autumn of 1783, and with Holland in the succeeding year. Thus ended the struggle with the American provinces. England had no cause to regret their detachment, for freedom of commercial relations, advantageous to both countries, superseded the right of sovereignty, which, though oppressive to America, was of little worth to the mother country. The American colonies, indeed, had yielded scarcely more than their maintenance had cost. Yet America was considered one of the brightest jewels in the British crown, and George III. was reluctant to relinquish that jewel. In consenting to the acknowledgment of American independence, he submitted to the advice of his minister, the earl of Shelburne; but he was the last man in his dominions to admit its necessity or expediency.

580. *The coalition ministry—Its dissolution—Pitt prime minister.*—Peace had scarcely been agreed upon, when new changes took place in the British ministry. The peace thus concluded was, indeed, the rock on which the earl of Shelburne's cabinet foundered. His overthrow was determined upon before the session of 1783, for Fox and lord North, whose sentiments were as opposite as the poles, had, to the astonishment of the whole nation, entered into a coalition for that express purpose. Their "ill-omened and baneful alliance" was eloquently denounced by Pitt, but the condemnation of the concessions made, uttered by them and their party, found such support in parliament, that ministers were left in a minority, and therefore instantly resigned. A new ministry was formed from the ranks of the coalition, the duke of Portland being prime minister. The majority of the members of the new cabinet were of the old whig or Rockingham party, but no confidence was placed in it either by the king or the people. It was while they were in office, however, that the preliminary treaty of peace between England and Holland was signed, and that the definitive treaties with France, Spain, and America, against the terms of which they had so loudly declaimed, were executed. Fox was secretary for foreign affairs, and as he knew that George III. held him in

579. When was the definitive treaty signed? Was American independence hurtful to the interests of Great Britain? Who was the last man in England to admit its necessity?

580. On what rock did the Earl of Shelburne's cabinet founder? What new ministry was formed? Under what circumstances did the coalition ministry come into office? By what motion did Fox bid for



very low estimation, and that he had lost the confidence of the people by joining the coalition ministry, he resolved to seek the restoration of the monarch's favour and the popularity of the people, by producing some great measure which would at once please the king and charm the country. He moved for leave to bring in a bill for vesting the affairs of the East India Company in the hands of commissioners for the benefit of the proprietary and the public. This bill was the downfall of the coalition ministry. Pitt argued that it would give ministers, in whom the power of appointing the commissioners was to be vested, a new, enormous, and dangerous influence, and boldly charged Fox with being prepared to sacrifice at the shrine of his ambition, both the king, the parliament, and the people. This bill was rejected on the second reading by a large majority, but ministers clung to office until the king sent a messenger to Fox and Lord North, directing them to deliver up their seals of office without delay. The seals were sent the next day, and the other members of the cabinet were then dismissed *sans cérémonie*. A new ministry was formed; Pitt being appointed first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. It was predicted that this new ministry would not exist one month, but though Pitt encountered the severest opposition, he triumphed over it, and his administration proved in the end one of the most memorable in the British annals.

581. *The trial of parties and the triumph of Pitt—Pitt's India Bill, 1784.*—Never was a minister more severely attacked than was Pitt at the commencement of his ministry. His youth was sneered at, and his ministry was denounced as having originated in darkness and secrecy; as being maintained by artifice and reserve; and as existing by corruption. Motion after motion was made, all having for their single object his expulsion from office, but though his majorities were small, and such as would have justified his resignation, he still stood firm at the helm of state. Piqued at his calmness, Fox moved an address to his majesty to dismiss his ministers, which was carried by a majority of twenty, but the king replied to the address by dissolving parliament. A general election took place, and the feeling of the country was so strongly against Fox, that the Pitt candidates were returned on every hand by triumphant majorities. Not less than one hundred and sixty members of opposition lost their popularity? What was the result? Who now became prime minister?

581. In what manner was Pitt attacked in parliament? What was the result? What was the effect of the general election?



seats, and were sent back to private life, with the ludicrous appellation of "Fox's martyrs." It was with difficulty that Fox himself could obtain a seat. The only one he could obtain, indeed, was for the borough of Kirkwall in Orkney, by which he exposed himself to the ridicule of his enemies as a person banished to the "Ultima Thule." The star of Pitt was in the ascendant, while that of his rival set in gloom. Government influence; the press which had been set to work to undermine the power of the coalition; and finally the youth, and the bold stand he had made against his opponents, all did their work in thus obtaining for Pitt the support of the nation. Moreover, though inexperienced, men saw in him the future champion of parliamentary reform, and the powerful antagonist of that aristocratic confederacy, against which his father, the great earl of Chatham, had exerted his talents. His first measure of importance had a tendency to such a consummation. In the midst of his popularity he brought forward an Indian bill, which possessed these threefold features:—A new establishment at home, with powers extending over the affairs of the East India Company; regulations to be applied to India; and the erection of a court in England for the trial of offences committed in that country. Many objections were started against the details of this bill, and during its progress some amendments were adopted, but the bill passed both houses with its main features untouched, by large majorities. The British empire in India was, indeed, for a long series of years, governed by the act this year passed in parliament, through the influence possessed by Pitt, "the youthful premier."

582. *The state of Ireland.*—At this period Ireland was in a very disturbed state. In the Irish parliament the question of reform was sternly agitated, and this measure was powerfully supported by a national convention held at Dublin for that purpose. The question was, indeed, supported and enforced, as it were, at the point of the bayonet, for volunteer corps were formed in the various provinces to terrify the members of the Irish house into compliance with the demand. So critical did the state of Dublin become, that several regiments, destined for the East Indies, had their orders for embarkation countermanded, and the garrison in that city was supplied with large stores of ammunition. Under the guidance of Pitt, however, the duke of Rutland, who had this year, 1784, been appointed lord lieutenant of that country, was enabled to

581. What causes aided the ascendancy of Pitt? What was his first important measure, and what were its general features?

582. In what state was Ireland at this period? Who was appointed



check the formidable spirit of turbulence and innovation which had exhibited itself, and the Irish people were apparently satisfied with his government. But it was manifest in 1785 that there was still an undercurrent of disaffection existing in Ireland, and that nothing but a complete change in the commercial relations of that country could afford relief to the people or restore tranquillity. Pitt concocted a comprehensive and enlightened measure for that purpose, but it met with so much opposition, not only in the British parliament, but in that of Ireland likewise, that he was obliged to abandon it for a season. The bill was chiefly denounced in Ireland, because it was supposed to have a tendency to bring about the union of the two countries; and hence on its abandonment, public illuminations were held in all the populous towns, as though the people had obtained a great victory. Thus this bill, which would have communicated solid and lasting advantages to both countries, had the effect only of arousing commercial jealousies and of awakening national prejudices.

583. *Pitt's Reform Bill, 1785.*—Having pledged himself “as a man and a minister” to reform the House of Commons in the session of this year, Pitt brought forward a plan, the specific proposition of which was to transfer the right of election from thirty-six rotten boroughs to the counties, and great unrepresented towns; giving a compensation in money to the holders of boroughs so disfranchised. The bill, also, proposed to extend the right of voting in county elections to copyholders. But the time of parliamentary reform had not yet arrived. The king, to whom the bill had been submitted, treated it with coldness, and the commons rejected it with disdain. It was thought that Pitt himself was not earnest on the subject of parliamentary reform; and it is certain that he made no use of his ministerial influence to make converts to his scheme. It is equally certain, likewise, that he never brought the subject before the house again, and that in later years he became a most determined opponent of all change or amendment in the representation. At the same time his friend Wilberforce gave him all due credit for sincerity upon the subject, for he writes with reference to it in his diary: “Pitt has a noble, patriotic heart.”

584. *Retrospective review of Indian affairs—Impeachment*

lord-lieutenant of that country, and what did he effect? What measure did Pitt propose for the relief of Ireland, and how was it received? To what feelings did Pitt's measure give rise?

583. What was the character of Pitt's motion for reform in parliament? How was it received by the king and the house? What change took place in his sentiments on this subject?



*of Warren Hastings—His prosecution deferred, 1786.*—Early in the session of this year a series of resolutions were passed for the better governing of our Indian empire, and lord Cornwallis was sent out as the first governor-general under the new constitution. That empire had become of vast importance and magnitude, for, during the contest with America, the British arms had frequently been employed in its extension and consolidation. No notice has been taken of these events, which occurred during this reign, in our previous pages, and therefore a condensed review of them will here be important. In 1760 Pondicherry was captured by the English, under colonel Coote, by which event the French power in India was destroyed. It was about that time that colonel Clive, that great Indian hero, serving under the British crown, arrived in England. Clive had, previous to his return to his native country, deposed the Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and had raised Meer Jaffier Ali Khan to that dignity. For his exploits he was raised to the Irish peerage by the title of Baron Clive of Plaissey: the name of the place where the nabob was defeated. Clive returned to India in 1765, where he found everything in a complete state of confusion and disorganisation. Attacked by mutinous sepoys and other bodies of armed men, and obtaining no support from the English governor of Calcutta, Meer Jaffier had been compelled to resign, and Meer Cassim Ali, his son-in-law, and general of his army, was invested with full powers as nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, on condition that he made over certain fruitful provinces to the Company. As Meer Cassim was destitute of means to carry on his government, he cast his eyes on the wealth of Ramnarrain, the celebrated governor of Patna. The English governor permitted him to make war upon Ramnarrain, and he was plundered of all his treasures, and thrown into prison. But this act on the part of the Company's agent met with its reward. All friendly correspondence between the English and native nobility ceased, and Meer Cassim had numerous offers of services and money if he would resist the foreigners. A war was the consequence, not only with Meer Cassim, but with other native princes. In the month of May, 1765, however, a great battle was fought near Corah, in which general Carnac gained a great victory over the confederate army, and chased them across the Jumna. It was on the day that this victory was obtained that Clive arrived at Calcutta.

584. Who was the first governor-general of India under the new constitution? By what event was the French power in India destroyed? Who was colonel Clive, and how was he employed in India?



He brought with him full powers to settle all disputes. By his energy peace was restored, and in his negotiations with the native princes he obtained a large accession of territory for the Company. Having restored peace, Clive turned his attention to the correction of abuses. But this was no easy task. Most of the members of the council at Calcutta had partaken of the spoils and profits derived from the nefarious system which had been adopted in India; and many of them were strong in their patronage at Leadenhall Street. But none of these things daunted Clive. In spite of threatened mutinies, and general discontent, he effected many useful reforms, both in the civil and military services in India, after which, in 1767, he returned to England—and, contrary to the usual course of things, he returned a poorer man than when he left its shores. Shortly after his departure from India the flames of war were rekindled in the Carnatic by Hyder Ali, who became one of the most formidable opponents of the English in all India. The war continued with Hyder Ali down to the year 1772, when a treaty was concluded by which that Mysorean chief obtained a large portion of the more northern and inland provinces of Mysore, together with thirty lacs of rupees. But, although nominally at peace with the English, Hyder Ali held these strangers in India, in utter abhorrence. During the next seven years he was employed in concocting schemes with the French at Pondicherry, and improving and increasing his army, with a design of overturning the Anglo-Indian government at Madras, if not in all India. In the meantime Warren Hastings, to whom had been committed the chief management of the Company's affairs in India, had been engaged in a variety of transactions with its native princes; deposing some, and raising others to their dignities, either by force of arms or by diplomacy, and ever seeking in all his transactions the extension of the Company's power and territory, by means, fair or doubtful, as occasion required. Thus he assisted the nabob of Oude to annex the Rohilcund country to his own; the Rajah of Tanjore was hunted down by his permission, and the whole of the Marawars were put into the possession of the nabob of the Carnatic; he sold Allahabad and Corah to Sujah Dowla, nabob of Oude, for fifty lacs of rupees, by which Shah Alum of Delhi was deprived of his rightful patrimony; and he carried on a war with several Mahratta chiefs whose fortresses and cities in the end were all captured, and their forces

What events happened on his return to England? How was Clive afterwards employed in India? Who was Hyder Ali, and in what war did he engage?



destroyed or dispersed. This Mahratta war was conducted by Goddard and Popham, and it promised a complete triumph, but the victors were stopped at this point by another Mysorean war, which threatened to destroy the English power and possessions on the Coromandel coast. Having completed his preparations, Hyder Ali poured his forces through the ghauts or passes, and burst like a mountain torrent into the Carnatic. Although warned of the coming danger no preparation had been made to avert it, and the whole country north of the Coleroon submitted to his sway. An English army was sent against him under colonel Baillie, but it was defeated; one-half were slain, and the rest made prisoners. Hyder Ali now pursued his career of triumph. The whole country lay at his mercy, and had it not been for Hastings the power of the British would have been broken not only in the Carnatic, but also in the northern Circars. Concluding peace with the Mahratta chiefs, he collected all the forces from that quarter, and from other parts of India, placing them under the command of Sir Eyre Coote. On the very spot where Baillie had been defeated, Coote routed Hyder Ali's forces with great slaughter, and chased him back to the vicinity of his own territory. It is supposed that Hyder Ali would have sued for peace, but shortly after his defeat he died, and Tippoo Saib, his son, was recognised as commander of the army and sovereign of Mysore. Tippoo Saib inherited his father's hatred of the English, and he scorned all overtures of peace with them, and the war was renewed. The grand result of this war with Tippoo Saib was that our Indian empire was saved, but by a treaty made between him and the company's commissioners he obtained many advantages not dictated by sound policy. All the forts and countries of Caroor and Daraporam, which in the course of the war had been taken from him, were restored, while unqualified restitution was enjoined by the commissioners as the very preliminary of negotiation with the artful nabob. Tippoo Saib, indeed, gained more by this war than any of the native princes with whom the English were in alliance. It was the friendly native princes, in truth, who suffered from this war. Its expenses had been great, and in order to obtain money, Hastings had, during its progress, carried on a system of exaction which reflects discredit on the English name. His

584. What was the character of the Mahratta war? When did Hyder Ali recommence war; and what were the results of the contest? By whom was he succeeded? What was Tippoo Saib's character? What was the grand result of the war with Tippoo Saib? Who was Warren Hastings? By what means did he carry on the war with



extortions gave rise to insurrection and bloodshed both in Benares and Oude, and the system which he had adopted was loudly denounced by the people of England. He had a narrow chance of being recalled as a criminal to answer for his conduct at Benares, but as the danger in India was at its height when the news arrived of his extortions, and as it was supposed that he alone was capable of protecting the British interests, he was allowed to remain at his post. But his delinquency, though passed over for awhile, was not forgotten. On the restoration of peace in India Hastings quitted his government and returned to England. On his return the board of directors voted him thanks for his long and meritorious services, and the court received him with favour, and treated him with distinction. It seemed that the remembrances of his deeds had been blotted out of the public memory, for several months rolled on in which he was left undisturbed. But this calm was only a prelude to a storm which suddenly broke over his head and disturbed his peace. In the session of 1786, Burke, one of the most eloquent orators of the day, who had long menaced him with impeachment, charged him with high crimes and misdemeanors in the execution of his office. The principal charges related to the affair of Benares; the Rohilla war; the various transactions in Oude; the Mahratta war and the Mahratta peace; the deposing of the Mogul of Corah and Allahabad; the hard treatment of Mohammed Reza Khan, who had been brought to trial at Calcutta for imaginary offences; the death of Nuncomar, who had been tried and unjustly executed for forgery; the treatment of the Rohilla chief Fyzoola Khan; disobedience of orders; extravagant expenditure; the enriching of dependants and favourites; and the acceptance of presents from nabobs and private individuals by the governor-general himself. All these charges were laid against Hastings with all the force of Burke's eloquence, and Pitt himself agreed in Burke's accusations. His motion for the impeachment of Hastings was carried by a large majority, but at this point it was stopped by a prorogation of parliament, it being found impracticable to go through all the charges during this session. As might be supposed, the motives of Burke in thus accusing Hastings were canvassed by a discerning public: some condemning them as unjust, and others as immaculate. The general voice was certainly against the accused. Nor did his majesty escape public censure on this occasion. At

Tippoo Saib? Of what was Hastings accused? By whom was he impeached? What were the specific charges brought against him?



the very time Hastings was being arraigned before parliament, the king received from him a diamond of great value; and the queen herself had previously received from Mrs. Hastings several diamonds, and a splendid ivory bedstead. The story of the diamond presented to the king soon got abroad, and it formed the subject not only of public conversation, but of songs, pamphlets, epigrams, and caricatures. In one caricature the king was represented with crown and sceptre huddled in a wheelbarrow, and Hastings, wheeling him about with a label from his mouth, saying, "What a man buys he may sell;" while in another the king was depicted on his knees, and Hastings pitching diamonds down his throat. But though the public believed that there was no end to the diamonds possessed by Hastings, he was in reality no Sinbad. On his return to England he did not bring home with him more than 130,000*l.* sterling, a sum much less than the fortunes which had been made by other members of the Council who had returned from India. He plundered the native princes, and impoverished whole provinces, but, on the whole, the treasures on which he laid his hands were either given to those by whom he was surrounded, or spent in building up the fabric of the British empire in India.

585. *Treaty of commerce between England and France, 1786—Attempt on the king's life—Affairs of the prince of Wales, 1787.*—In the autumn of 1786 a treaty of commerce was signed between the courts of England and France on the principle of admitting the commodities of each country to be freely exported and imported at a low *ad-valorem* duty. This treaty was laid before parliament in 1787, and received its concurrence and sanction. It was an enlightened measure, and greatly increased Pitt's popularity throughout the country, but events soon occurred which set aside all the advantages that would otherwise have arisen from it. Shortly before the signing of this treaty an attempt was made upon the king's life by a woman named Nicholson. While presenting a petition with one hand she aimed a desperate blow at his majesty with a knife which she held in the other; but his condescending manners in this instance were the means of saving his life: as the woman presented the petition he bowed to her, and the blow in consequence fell short of his person. Margaret Nicholson was found to be insane, and she was con-

584. How was the king involved in this matter? In what particular was the public deceived as regards Hastings? In what manner did he spend the moneys obtained by extortion?

585. What treaty was made at this period between France and England? What attempt was made upon the life of the king?



signed to Bethlehem Hospital for life. Her attempt led to a display of the affection which the nation entertained towards his majesty: addresses of congratulation flowed in from all parts of the country, and, pleased with the ebullition of feeling, he distributed the honour of knighthood on the presentation of these addresses with a liberal hand: a liberality which gave rise to the byword of "A Knight of Peg Nicholson's order!" But there was one man in the kingdom from whom the king would not receive congratulation. That man was his own son, the Prince of Wales, and afterwards George the Fourth! On hearing of the attempt made upon his father's life, the prince hastened down to Windsor, but although he was received by the queen the king sternly refused to see him. The cause of his being repulsed was this: the Prince of Wales had of late been living a scandalous life at Carlton House, and had refused to listen to the counsels of both the king and queen to amend his conduct. Surrounded by the Whigs, and having for his chief companion Fox, whom the king heartily despised, he ran such a career of profligacy that he became deeply in debt. The embarrassed state of his affairs formed the subject of debate in the two sessions of 1786-7, and though at first the king sternly opposed any relief being afforded to him, he at length sent a message to the house, which procured the prince payment of his debts and an addition to his income. His majesty seems to have been induced to send this message chiefly through a distinct declaration made to the house by Fox, that the prince had not contracted a marriage with a Mrs. Fitzherbert, as common rumour had reported. In making this declaration, however, Fox appears to have gone beyond his patron's wishes; for the prince still continued to live with that lady, and she would never speak to Fox again. It is said that a marriage-ceremony had been performed *more catholico* in the town-house of Mrs. Fitzherbert's uncle, Lord Sefton; but if this report is true, such a marriage was null and void by the laws of the country. The prince, therefore, had his debts paid and his income increased, but the scandal continued.

586. *Measures in parliament—The king's illness and restoration, 1788-9.*—Early in the session of 1788, in consequence of some disputes between government and the East India directors respecting the support of government troops in India, Pitt brought in and carried a measure for the better

585. What course of life did the prince of Wales pursue at this period? What consequences ensued between him and his father?

586. What characterised the session of 1788?



regulation of the affairs in India. In the same session a large sum of money was voted to indemnify the American royalists for losses sustained during the war between the colonies and the mother country. It was during this session, also, that the slave-trade was first brought before the notice of parliament; but as Mr. Wilberforce, who had resolved to devote his whole parliamentary life to the suppression of this trade, was ill at Bath, the subject was postponed. Parliament was prorogued by the king in person, on the 11th of July. At that time he appeared to be in his usual state of health, but, shortly after, he became indisposed. His complaint was at first a bilious fever, but it resulted in depriving him of reason. As it was not expected that he would ever again be capable of holding the reins of government, long debates took place in parliament concerning the formation of a regency. All parties agreed that the prince of Wales should be regent, but they were greatly divided as to the extent and nature of the powers with which, as regent, he ought to be entrusted. Party spirit ran high upon this subject, but before the disputes were ended, the king recovered both his bodily and mental health. This event was hailed with joy by all his subjects, and in the spring of 1789 his majesty went to St. Paul's Cathedral to return thanks to the Almighty, giver of health and intellect, for his recovery. His passage to the cathedral was attended by numerous crowds, who greeted him with enthusiastic affection; and, when he entered the edifice, the peal of organs, and the voices of five thousand children singing the hundredth psalm, so affected him, that he observed with emotion, "Now I feel that I have been ill." George III. had passed through good and evil report, but no monarch was ever more beloved than he was at this period. By his affliction his popularity was greatly increased; it became the fashion to call him the "good old king," and all classes of his subjects loved to dwell upon his morals and his virtues.

587. *Parliamentary proceedings—Continental affairs—Revolutionary principles in England, 1790.*—During the session of 1790 abortive attempts were made to bring about a repeal of the Test and Corporation acts, which bore heavily upon the Protestant dissenters, and to pass a bill for reform in parliament. These were the only great political questions

586 What event happened to the king? What subject did his illness give rise to in Parliament? How did the nation receive the news of his recovery?

587. What were the principal subjects discussed in the session of 1790?



which engaged the Commons during this session. Another important topic, however, was ably discussed in parliament, and was re-echoed from lip to lip throughout England. At this period the whole continent was in a ferment. There was war between Russia and Sweden, and there was war between the imperial courts of Austria and Russia, and the Porte. A Danish army, also, invaded Sweden and menaced Gothenburg; but, overawed by the courts of England and Prussia, the crown prince of Denmark, who governed for his incapable father, was quickly obliged to promise to abstain from further hostilities. In the course of the year, likewise, the Netherlanders revolted against Austria, and, before its close, the Flemings, the states of Brabant, and all the other provinces, with the exception of Luxembourg, established their independence. Efforts were made in several small states, such as Geneva and Aix la Chapelle, to bring about a revolution. A democratic spirit prevailed everywhere, but it was in France that it became the wildest and most ungovernable. That awful episode in the history of the world—the French revolution—now became an event of absorbing interest and high excitement to the whole of Europe, but more especially to our own country. By the aid which the king of France had afforded to the Americans in their war of independence, he had struck a blow at the stability of his own throne. A revolutionary spirit had previously displayed itself in France, but the rebellion in America gave an impetus to it which no measures could stem. Year after year disaffection to the Bourbon dynasty became stronger and stronger, till at length, in the month of June of this year, the storm which had long been gathering, burst in awful fury over the head of the devoted monarch. He was divested of all his absolute authority; the Bastille, that den of slavery and cruelty, by which he had mainly supported that authority, was destroyed, so that one stone was not left upon another; and a national assembly was chosen by the people, who took from the king the power of making war and peace, and abolished all peerages, it being their declared opinion, that no distinction should be known, except such as arose from virtue, genius, and merit. In July the French monarch made a solemn surrender of the power hitherto lodged in his hands, and, by so doing, he became the servant of the people. And he soon discovered that his masters, the people, could rule as he had ruled, with a rod of iron. In the field of Mars, he was com-

587. What wars occurred on the continent? What revolutions took place? By what proceedings was the French revolution characterised?



pelled to take a solemn oath to abide by the new constitution, as prescribed by the national assembly; and when, to avoid the tyranny of the democracy, he endeavoured to escape to his German dominions, he was pursued and brought back to Paris, where he was closely guarded in one of the royal palaces. As a prisoner in his own palace, he was compelled to sign a new code of laws, drawn up by the national assembly; an act which, for awhile, allayed the irritation that prevailed throughout the kingdom, but only to break forth anew with redoubled fury. As a near neighbour, England watched the progress of these events in France with anxiety. At first there was little or no division of opinion concerning them. The general opinion was favourable to the revolution, arising from the natural abhorrence with which Englishmen look upon every form of despotism. Statesmen, including Fox and Pitt, contemplated the revolution with pleasure, and applauded it; poets sang of the destruction of the Bastille; and divines, from their pulpits, were not slow in extolling the character of the French regenerators. All this was done from a generous sympathy; for while the excesses committed were deeply lamented, the people attributed them to the old tyranny which had so long existed in France. There were a few, however, who viewed the new politics of France with horror. Looking from the present to the future, they foresaw that the events which had taken place in France would either terminate in anarchy, or end in despotism. Burke was, perhaps, the first great public man of the day to discern the true character of the French revolution. His speeches in public, and the letters which he wrote during its progress, all show that he looked upon it with the most fearful forebodings; auguring from the bloody deeds with which it was consummated, deeds still more bloody and inhuman. Burke was not single in this opinion; but the majority were impressed with an idea, that after the first ebullitions of vengeance, the French people would return to their senses, and be able, by wisdom and moderation, to build up a fabric of freedom on the ruins of tyranny, of such beauty and stability, as might serve for a model to all Europe.

588. *The session of 1791—Progress of the revolution in France—Change of opinion thereon in England—Riots in Birmingham.*—The only measure of importance passed this year was a bill for the regulation of Canada. In the debates

587. What was the general opinion in England of that event? In what light did Burke and the minority view the French revolution?

588. What important measure was passed in the session of 1791?



on this measure, Fox, who opposed it as a whole, as creating a new nobility in that colony, embraced the opportunity of extolling the "glorious revolution" in France. On the other hand, Burke again sounded the trumpet of alarm at that event. This subject, indeed, was the means of dissevering the friendship which had so long existed between those two great orators in the British senate. Henceforth—

They stood aloof—the scars remaining  
Like cliffs which had been rent asunder.

The notes of alarm sounded by Burke did not proceed from an over-heated imagination. Events now plainly showed what would be the result of the French revolution. The power of the Jacobins, those stern and unrelenting foes of royalty, daily increased, and it was no vain prediction uttered by Mirabeau on his dying bed, that when he was gone "they would soon tear the last shreds of the monarchy." Mirabeau was the leader of those few in the national assembly who still adhered to the cause of royalty, and up to the last moment of his life he had endeavoured to stem the dangers by which it was surrounded. He was the only man in the assembly most able to effect such a work; and after his death, the ruin of the monarchy became certain. The most violent commotions took place in the national assembly, and the result was, that it was compelled to declare itself dissolved. It was followed by a new assembly, known in history as the "legislative;" an assembly which was composed of three classes—the Feuillans, who advocated a mitigated aristocracy; the Girondins, who had a fixed aversion to even the shadow of royalty; and the Jacobins, who not only hated royalty, but aimed to sweep away rank, wealth, and talent from the land. A stern struggle took place between these parties for dominant power, which resulted in the union of the Girondins and Jacobins against the Feuillans, or constitutionalists, and then all was lost. The monarch was compelled to choose his ministers from the ranks of the Jacobins, and it was manifest at the close of this year that the king was on the high road to the scaffold, and that the lives of all those who still had a lingering affection for the constitution were in danger. Red caps were worn by the Jacobins as a party badge; the guillotine, beneath which thousands of victims were to bleed and die, was introduced, and all France assumed the aspect of an arena of wild beasts. As the re-

What rupture of friendship took place on this occasion? How did the revolution progress in France? What party became dominant? To what revulsion of feeling did the scenes which occurred in France



revolutionary chiefs in France displayed their incapacity to govern, and as the popular impatience became tinged with ferocity, misgivings arose in England as to the results of the revolution, and parties took distinct ground. The tories unanimously deplored the rash spirit displayed by the French assemblies, and a schism ensued among the whigs, some anticipating only the downfall of despotism, and others, the overthrow of government altogether. The spell was broken, and party feeling upon the subject ran high in the metropolis and the provincial towns. Some there were who thought that this was the proper time for procuring the redress of what were deemed defects in the domestic constitution, and to aid the general cause of liberty. Societies were formed for that purpose, under the names of "Friends of the People," etc., and a fierce war was carried on by the press against those who wrote in favour of the British constitution. That fierce democrat, Tom Paine, issued his "Rights of Man" at this period, which, although its arguments were crude and undigested, was extolled by the republican party in England as a masterpiece of human intelligence and genius, and as a complete refutation of all the sound and philosophical reasonings contained in Burke's "Reflections." Among those who wrote in favour of republicanism, was the celebrated Unitarian preacher, Dr. Priestley, whose writings, like those of Paine, had an evil tendency at this period of excitement. Dr. Priestley ministered at Birmingham, where an association was formed under his auspices, to celebrate the French revolution, on the 14th of July, the anniversary of the taking of the Bastille. This gave rise to a riot. The tavern in which these commemorators of the revolution met, was surrounded by a mob, who shouted, "Church and king," at the top of their voices; and who finally became so patriotic, that they broke open the tavern doors, in the hope of finding the Doctor, from "whose wig they wanted to knock out the powder." But the guests were gone, and the mob, thus robbed of their intended innocent amusement, became enraged, and when they found they could not discover the Doctor, they smashed all the windows of the tavern, and then rushed forth to seek him elsewhere. Mischief was afloat; not meeting with Priestley at his house on Fair Hill, it was set on fire, and both the new meeting-house in which he preached, and the old meeting-house likewise, were burned to the ground. Other houses, both of dissenters and churchmen, were broken

give rise in England? Who were the two chief writers who advocated republicanism in England? What was the nature of the riots which occurred in Birmingham?



into, and plundered, and damaged; and it was not till the words, "light horse," sounded in the ears of the mob that they dispersed; they vanished then as if by magic, and when the "light horse" appeared on the scene of destruction, not a shadow of them could be found. The views of the revolutionists in England were generally condemned by the public; throughout the country expressions of sympathy in that direction became confined to a very small party, and they had the effect of creating a morbid apprehension of change of any kind, and of postponing measures of reform, admitted by many to be necessary. As for Dr. Priestley, England became too hot to hold him, and he finally expatriated to America. He had previously been nominated a citizen of the Republic, but he had become convinced that there was no safety for him in that country, as even the violent revolutionists in France had, at the time of his departure from England, become busied in slaying each other. Never was this scripture truth more emphatically illustrated than it was in France at this period, "The violent shall not live out half their days."

589. *The parliament of 1792—East India affairs—The French Revolution—State of the public mind in England—Precautionary measures—The French king executed.*—Although events in Europe had, at this time, cast their dark shadows before them, yet, at the meeting of parliament, his majesty affirmed that the general state of affairs promised peace to England. Pitt maintained a strict neutrality in reference to the various commotions on the continent, and so little did he anticipate subsequent events, that he declared there never was a time in the history of England when the continuance of peace might be more confidently predicted. The subjects brought before parliament were various. Among these were the slave-trade question, which Wilberforce, with all the force of his silvery eloquence, renewed from year to year; parliamentary reform; and the state of affairs in India. In the East Indies there had been another war, which had commenced in 1789, but which had, during this year, 1792, been brought to a close. The events of this war, which had been waged between that inveterate enemy of England, Tippoo Saib, and the British forces, were various. The final contest took place before the walls of Tippoo's capital, Seringapatam, where his forces were defeated by lord Cornwallis

588. What became of Dr. Priestley?

589. What views did Pitt hold at the opening of the year 1792 respecting peace or war? What subjects were discussed in Parliament? What events had taken place recently in India?



with great slaughter. Seringapatam was closely and completely invested. Preparations were made for storming it, but Tippoo seeing his situation hopeless, sued for and obtained peace. The treaty he was forced to accept contained these hard conditions :—Tippoo was to cede one-half of his territories to the British and their allies ; he was to pay three crores and thirty lacs of rupees to indemnify them for the expenses of the war ; and he was to release all his prisoners, and give up two of his sons as hostages for the due execution of the treaty. But although he was humbled, Tippoo Sultaun remained the same inveterate foe to the English as before ; no active kindness shown either to himself or his captive sons could soften his bitter resentment. In parliament, the opposition argued that this war with Tippoo was unnecessary, but a resolution was carried, which declared that the conduct of lord Cornwallis as governor-general accorded with the true spirit and intent of the rules of government, established by the British parliament for the affairs of India. Parliament was prorogued in June, and when it again met in the autumn the speech from the throne was full of alarm. And no wonder. In the course of the year the revolution in France had made gigantic strides, and had been attended by many momentous circumstances. The Tuilleries, that ancient abode of royalty, had been attacked and plundered ; massacres of a wholesale nature had been committed in the prisons ; royalty had been abolished ; a republic had been established ; and a decree had been issued by the convention, offering fraternity and succour to any nation wishing to recover its liberty, which was obviously a manifesto against all existing governments in Europe. These events filled the minds of the people in England generally with terror. At the same time the revolutionary societies in England grew daily bolder and bolder in their proceedings. So enthusiastic were they, indeed, in their admiration of the French revolution, that they even transmitted addresses of applause to the national convention. It became painfully evident that, unless checked by the popular voice or by government, or by both together, that the revolutionary societies in England would sooner or later produce corresponding fruits to those of France. As a check, therefore, to their baneful influence, clubs and associations were everywhere formed for the support of the British constitution, and it soon became manifest that though the French

589. What was the nature of the treaty accepted and executed by Tippoo Sultaun? What memorable event took place this year in France? How were the news of these events received in England? What precautionary measures were adopted to prevent the spread of revo-



had some few thousands of admirers in England, yet the great mass of the people abhorred their proceedings; and that though many desired to bring about a revolution in their own country, yet there were more who were ready to fight for and maintain the constitution as it existed, against all its enemies, native or foreign. Nor did the British government remain passive. The country was placed in a state of defence; the militia was called out; the Tower strengthened; and both the naval and military force augmented. Burke rightly said in parliament at the close of this year, that this was a momentous crisis, and that the British constitution was on its trial. Yet with all the horrors which had been committed in France staring him in the face, Fox moved a resolution to the effect that a minister be sent to Paris to treat with those persons who exercised provisionally the executive government of France. But Fox now stood almost alone in the house of commons. His motion was emphatically negatived. At the close of this year, in truth, there was virtually no government in Paris to whom a minister could be sent. France was governed by a mob, and at the very time Fox made his motion, that mob had arraigned its unfortunate monarch before its bloodthirsty tribunal. On the 11th of December he was brought before the bar of his subjects, and after a trial, which was a cruel mockery of justice, he was condemned to death. The cry raised by the Jacobins for his blood, and echoed by the Parisian populace, proved fatal to him. In January, 1793, he perished beneath the guillotine, and no nation in Europe endeavoured to save him from his fate. The king of Spain pleaded for his life; but the plea of a crowned head was vain; for the Jacobins had sworn eternal hatred and war against royalty.

590. *Parliamentary debates—Declaration of war by the French—Preparations for war—Fox's motion for peace—Affairs of Ireland—Military operations—The vengeance of the Jacobins, 1793.*—The news of the death of the king of France created a great sensation in England. On receiving it the king sent a message to the commons, stating the necessity that existed of a further augmentation of forces by sea and land. This gave rise to an animated debate, in which Pitt rightly described the execution of the French monarch as an event which outraged every sentiment of religion, revolutionary principles in England? How did the British government act? What crowning act of the French revolution was committed in January, 1793?

590. What was the chief topic at the opening of the session in 1793?



justice, and humanity; as the effect of principles which started by severing all the bonds of society. He declared that war was preferable to a peace which would not be consistent either with the internal tranquillity or external safety of England, and he moved an address to his majesty to that effect. Fox and some of his friends deprecated such a measure, and endeavoured to show that war was not necessary, and that it might be avoided, but Pitt's motion was carried without a division. Fox must have known that war between England and France had now become inevitable. The British character is too noble to run a race of infamy; and the British government too manly to mix itself up with a body of regicides. Before the French king was executed the two governments looked upon each other with suspicion and mistrust; so much so, that for months all official communications had been suspended. It is true that the national convention had expressed a desire for peace with England, but that desire was not sincere. The words, indeed, that "war might be avoided" had scarcely died from the lips of Fox, and the ink was scarcely dry on the document by which the convention expressed a wish for peace, when intelligence arrived that France had declared war against England and Ireland. The national convention, without previous notice, first gave directions for acts of hostility against the persons and property of his majesty's subjects residing in France; and then declared war against his majesty himself and the United Provinces. Such was the announcement made by the king to parliament, and ministers, supported by the members and the voice of the people, prepared for the coming struggle. Large supplies were voted, and it was in vain that Fox still contended that the war was both impolitic and unnecessary. All the old whigs ranged themselves on the side of government, and only about forty members remained to support his opposition. Yet after it had been generally supposed that all public business was over for the session, and that Fox had exhausted all the modes of pressing his French scheme, he moved an address that peace ought to be concluded. Whom shall we treat with? tauntingly asked Burke: with M. Le Brun? he is in gaol! With Claviere? he is nowhere to be found! With M. Egalité? he is in the dungeons of Marseilles! Whom shall we treat with? demanded Pitt: with Marat, that monster, and his party, who are now lords of the ascendant, and the arbiters and rulers of France? Such questions could not be

590. How were parliament and the people affected towards France? In what manner did the national convention declare war against Eng-



answered, and the cry which Fox raised for peace was lost in the general cry for war. In order that the nation might carry on that war unitedly during this year, an important concession was made to the Roman Catholics in Ireland. A bill of relief to that body was passed, the chief enacting clause of which was, to enable them to exercise and enjoy all civil and military offices, and places of trust and profit under the crown, under certain restrictions. This act fell short of complete emancipation, but it was received with gratitude, and had the effect for a *time* of softening the voice of clamour and disaffection throughout Ireland. In the meantime the war with France had commenced. Alliances were formed with foreign powers to restrict the aggressive spirit of the new republic, but as regards our own government the struggle was commenced in a weak and ineffective manner. Valenciennes surrendered to the duke of York, the king's second son, but on his laying siege to Dunkirk, he was attacked by Houchard and Jourdan, and was compelled to make a precipitate retreat: an event which caused great joy in Paris. Lord Hood also occupied Toulon, but it was soon abandoned, owing to a formidable attack in which Napoleon Buonaparte gained great distinction. Before leaving Toulon, however, the English set fire to the French vessels in the harbour, together with the dockyard and the arsenal. This was the first noted act of young Napoleon, but he was from that time marked out by the revolutionists as their hero to carry on their war with all Europe. The recapture of Toulon crushed all hope of resistance to the Jacobins in the south of France. Henceforth they were left free to act and conquer in all the provinces. Everywhere they triumphed over their enemies, and wherever they conquered there followed vengeance. In the Vendee, where the royalists contended bravely for the mastery, but were hopelessly defeated, thousands of the inhabitants were destroyed by columns surnamed "infernal," and thousands more were carried as prisoners to Nantes, where they were either crushed in bodies by the cannons' thunder, or slain with the sword, or drowned in the Loire. Similar scenes were enacted in Lyons, Bordeaux, and Marseilles; nor was Paris, the seat of the revolution, free from the like atrocities. Like Rome, she did most "fearful execution on herself." Marie Antoinette, the widow of the murdered king, the princess Elizabeth his sister, and the duke of Orleans, were all executed. And the terrorists murdered not only princes

land? What motion did Fox make, and how was he answered? What measure of relief to Ireland was passed this session, and why? What



and royalists, but also acknowledged friends of the revolution, thousands upon thousands perished by the blood-stained guillotine. The committee of public safety, consisting of Robespierre and other Jacobins of the most violent order, sat uninterruptedly, and dealt destruction to all around. Every section of the community in Paris and the provinces trembled before these bloody tyrants.

“So confusion reigned  
And the more faithful were compelled to exclaim  
As Brutus did to virtue, Liberty,  
We worshipped thee, and find thee but a shade!”

*Wordsworth.*

591. *Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act—Agitation in England and Scotland—Military and Naval Operations, &c.*—The recent defeats sustained by the British arms suggested the necessity of increased vigour and an augmentation of forces. Both the army and the navy were, by a vote in parliament, to be greatly increased; and, to meet the extraordinary exertions, a loan of £11,000,000 was granted, together with some new taxes. Fox and his “glorious minority” attacked these war measures of government, but every effort made by them to stem the tide of war proved fruitless. This opposition, however, had some little weight in the country. Seditious practices were still carried on by societies in London in correspondence with other societies in the provinces, consisting of men who agreed in his opinions for the purpose of assembling a convention to represent the people, in defiance of and in opposition to parliament, and on principles subversive of the British constitution, and calculated to introduce anarchy similar to that in France. To check this spirit the Habeas Corpus act was suspended, Pitt demanding it as necessary to the salvation of the country. It was resolved also that all participators in conspiracies should be punished, and that, if necessary, his majesty should be invested with additional power for the suppression of attempts against government. Government had scarcely so much cause for the alarm it exhibited, but still there was some cause for fear. This was manifested by some state trials which occurred at this period. Suspecting the machinations of the conspirators, spies were employed by government, who, becoming members of the corresponding societies, betrayed the secrets with which they were entrusted. Several

were the operations of the war this year as regards England? In what condition was France at this period, and by whom was it ruled?

591. What were the general measures adopted in parliament in



of the principal members of these societies were tried at the Old Bailey in London, and also in Scotland. Those tried at the Old Bailey, among whom were Horne Tooke and Thelwall, a political lecturer, were acquitted; but Muir, a Scotch barrister, and Palmer, a Unitarian preacher at Dundee, were found guilty by the Scotch law of sedition, and transported. A similar trial took place at Manchester, but the accused were acquitted, and Dunn, who informed against them, was committed to take his trial for perjury. A rumour was raised that a design had been formed to assassinate the king, and some persons were arrested, but they were soon liberated, and the story fell into contempt, under the designation of the "Pop-gun plot," it having been averred that the king was to be shot with an instrument resembling a walking-stick! These little episodes in our history were of minor importance compared with the military and naval operations of our soldiers and sailors. Off the coast of France lord Howe encountered a French fleet of superior force under Villaret Joyeuse, which he defeated, capturing many of their ships, and taking more than two thousand prisoners. Some of their ships also sunk with all on board, and the rest, favoured by the wind, escaped. Lord Howe afterwards captured five ships of war off the harbour of Brest, and during the year there were numerous contests between small squadrons and frigates, in which the superiority of the English as combatants on their own element was well maintained. During the whole year the English lost only one ship of the line, and this ship did not surrender until she had sustained the assault of three French ships of the line for two hours. The superiority of the British navy soon began to excite public attention, and to produce its wonted effects on the colonial possessions of our enemies. Thus Sir John Jervis captured Martinique in the West Indies, and its reduction was followed by the conquest of Saint Lucie and Guadaloupe. Tobago had been previously taken by a British squadron; but at the close of the year Martinique was regained by the French. The spirit displayed at the commencement of this momentous struggle gave fair hopes of a successful issue; but while the English were in general victorious by sea, they, in common with their allies, were uniformly unsuccessful by land. For England was not at war with France single-handed. Austria, Prussia, Sardinia, Spain, and Holland,—all these were in the field

**the** session of 1794? What prosecutions took place in England and Scotland, and what were their results? What were the naval operations of England this year? How was the war maintained on the continent? By whom were the English joined in their contest



likewise. But while the allies had not more than 140,000 soldiers, the republicans had nearly one million armed men in the field. This preponderance of numerical strength, and the division of sentiment which existed among the officers of the coalition, gave the French an advantage over their enemies. The duke of York gained a victory at Tournay, but he was defeated at Turcoing. The Austrians also gained some minor victories, but in the end were overwhelmed by superior numbers. The whole of Austrian Flanders, indeed, and Brabant fell under the dominion of the French in one brief campaign. The armies of the republic were also victorious in Spain, Italy, and Holland, and this latter country sued for peace to the ruling faction at Paris. That faction, while thus bravely contending with their enemies, was now, however, destroying each other. As regards crime, they had hitherto been one and indivisible. They had been sufficiently united to issue a decree that there was no God; but shortly after this display of madness they split into two contending parties; the one wishing to stop the effusion of blood, and the other resolved upon its continuance. This gave rise to a fierce struggle, in the midst of which most of the Jacobin leaders fell victims. Some of them, as Robespierre and Lebon, destroyed themselves, and eighty-three heads, mostly of municipal councillors and revolutionary judges, were decapitated. The Thermidoreans, who advocated moderate principles, therefore, prevailed against the Jacobins, and sentiments of humanity long unknown began to appear in the French government. There was, however, no relaxation in that energy and spirit which pushed its armies on to conquest. Revolutionary France still defied all Europe!

592. *The trial of Warren Hastings—Burke quits his seat in parliament.*—It has been seen in the previous pages that in the session of 1786 Burke had impeached Warren Hastings for malpractices in the government of India. In each session, from that period to the year 1794, this remarkable trial proceeded. With all the force of eloquence Burke arraigned the delinquent, supposed or real, before the bar of the house of lords. But Hastings had numerous friends in that house, and the result of the trial in each succeeding year was that the trial was postponed. Both the accused and the accuser complained of the slowness of the proceedings, but to no purpose. The peers still walked leisurely with the French? What change took place in the French government this year, and how was that change brought about?

592. What was the result of the trial of Warren Hastings? How



from the hall to the chamber, and from their chamber to the hall, whence it was jocosely said by lord Stanhope, that "the judges walked, but the trial stood still." This year, however, it was brought to a close, and Hastings was in 1795 formally acquitted. Burke, whose honesty of purpose in this matter cannot be doubted, was mortified at this decision, and that philosophical statesman soon after quitted the house of commons for ever by accepting the Chiltern hundreds. Among his last words were a warning to the country to beware of the fate of France. But his warning was scarcely now needed. He had sounded the trumpet of alarm with such effect for several sessions that the nation was now fairly roused to a sense of danger, and was prepared to ward off the blow by the most vigorous efforts. Burke had thus rendered a noble service, not only to his own generation, but to posterity—not only to England, but all Europe. The cost of the trial of Hastings amounted to seventy thousand pounds, which was paid by the East India Company. They also gave him a donation. This was nothing but just, for it is clear that he had attended more to their interest than his own; and if he had exacted money from tributaries beyond that which was due, it was for them, and not for himself. His abilities had secured the authority and established the dominion of this country over the East.

593. *Subsidies and supplies—Marriage of the Prince of Wales—Affairs of Ireland—Treaties—Operations of the war, 1795.*—Early in this year it became evident that Holland, Prussia, and Spain were upon the point of breaking with the coalition, and concluding treaties with France. Austria remained our steadfast ally, but Austria wanted money, and thought herself entitled to call upon England for a subsidy. Much discussion arose upon this in parliament, but a loan of five millions was unanimously voted to aid his imperial majesty in the ensuing campaign. The king of Prussia had previously obtained gold from England, and his defalcation was bitterly complained of, more especially as he had chiefly spent that gold in operations, not against France, but against Poland. A subsidy was also granted at this time to the king of Sardinia. In order to raise the supplies required, new taxes were imposed, and a loan of £18,000,000 was granted, the largest up to this period ever voted by parliament. The whole expenditure for the year was £27,540,000,

did Burke feel that result? What were his last words in parliament? By whom was the expenses of the trial of Hastings defrayed?

593. In what position was the allies at the opening of the year 1793? What sum was voted as a subsidy to Austria? What were the



and the ways and means were voted to supply that sum, as Pitt desired. In April of this year also the house was called upon by his majesty to free the prince of Wales from his heavy debts, and to provide more liberally for his maintenance, he having previously been married to the princess Caroline of Brunswick. Suitable provision was accordingly made, and a jointure of £50,000 per annum was settled on the princess, a sum which by no means compensated her for the after-miseries which she endured from this ill-assorted union. The only measure of significance and importance passed in this session was for the establishment of a college at Maynooth for the education of young Irishmen designed for the priesthood, who were at this time deprived of the advantages of foreign universities from the disordered state of the continent. The catholics also obtained permission to study at the university of Dublin. But all the concessions made to the catholics failed to produce solid peace in Ireland. Indulgences were not appreciated. On the contrary, they only seemed to increase the disaffection of the Irish population. Disaffection, indeed, now became so general, that the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, by which the agents of government were enabled to imprison obnoxious or suspected persons without any assigned cause or any appointed time of trial. Government also embodied an armed yeomanry to assist the regular troops and militia to preserve order, and a body of men, united under the names of orangemen, for the purposes of security. This latter step, however, only tended to increase disorders. Fights took place between the orangemen, or protestants, on the one side, and the united Irishmen, or catholics, on the other: so that the whole country exhibited a scene of terror, consternation, and bloodshed. In Armagh the orangemen succeeded in expelling several thousands of the catholics from the country. The roads leading from the city of Armagh presented the most heartrending scenes; groups of miserable families were seen endeavouring to escape from their persecutors into the south and west districts of the country. Such was the unhappy state of Ireland at this eventful period. The British government was beset with difficulties on every hand, at home and abroad. Holland had not only forsaken the alliance of the coalition, but had joined her arms to those of France. It is true that the empress of Russia and the emperor of Germany now entered supplies of this year, as voted by parliament? What noted marriage took place in April? In what state was Ireland at this period, and what concessions were made? Did they produce any good effects?



into treaties of defensive alliance with Great Britain, but these treaties meant little more than that Russia might at some time require the assistance of an English fleet, and that Austria would require another English subsidy. Equally unprofitable was a treaty entered into with the infidel and piratical dey of Algiers, for its chief stipulation was only this—that the Algerines were allowed by the treaty to carry their prizes into the forts at Corsica and sell them there! But though almost forsaken, England did battle valiantly with the forces of republican France. By sea, Admiral Hotham, skilfully aided by Nelson, afterwards destined to be the scourge of France on the mighty ocean, defeated a French fleet, whose design was to drive the English out of Corsica. Hotham afterwards attacked the French fleet near Cape Roux, and captured one ship of the line; and the channel fleet, under lord Bridport, also took three French ships belonging to the Brest fleet under Admiral Villaret. These were the only actions of importance on the ocean during this year: except by Nelson, who was detached on some coast service, scarcely another gun was fired in the Mediterranean. In the West Indies the English squadrons and cruizers were not so successful; the French, aided by the negro population, recovered Guadaloupe, and captured the fort of Tiburon in St. Domingo. As Holland was now reckoned among the enemies of England, she was made to suffer for her defection. The Cape of Good Hope was taken possession of by the British forces; and all the places which the Dutch held in Ceylon, with Malacca, Cochin, Chinsura, Amboyna, and Banda fell into the hands of the British. On the continent the forces of England did little to raise their renown. An expedition was sent to aid the Vendéans in their struggles with the republicans, but it arrived too late: the royalists were everywhere defeated, and all that the British fleet could do was to receive about 2500 Vendéans on board to save them from destruction. The republicans were equally successful in Italy. Their army, under Massena, having crossed the Alps, got between the Austrian and Piedmontese armies, defeated them in detail, and then triumphantly wintered in Vado and Savone. On the Rhine, however, the French forces were defeated by the Austrians, who recovered the whole of the Palatinate, and of the country between the Rhine and the Moselle. But the balance of success this

593. What treaties were now formed? Of what character were these treaties? What victories were gained by sea? What war operations were undertaken by the French in the West Indies? What reprisals did the English make upon the Dutch? What were the leading



year was in favour of republican France. The French republic, however, was still a house divided against itself. This year witnessed the close of the empire of the jacobins. Everywhere they were hunted down, and those who had practised or even favoured terrorism were massacred. But the downfall of the jacobins failed to produce concord. Strife arose between the convention and the sections, the latter having become re-inclined to monarchy. To prevent this the convention decreed that in an election about to take place for a new directory government, two-thirds of the members should be re-elected, and that the convention itself should make choice of those members. This dictatorial act met with stern opposition from the sections; they rose in arms to the number of forty thousand men, and prepared to resist the convention. But it was in vain. The aid of the army was called in, and Napoleon Buonaparte, now brigadier-general of the army in Italy, by his artillery, swept the ranks of the sections at every point, and in one brief hour two thousand perished. Some arrests and executions confirmed the victory; the republic still remained dominant under the guardianship of the directory.

594. *Agitation and distress in England—Bill to prevent seditious meetings.*—The harvest of the year 1795 was a failure; provisions, therefore, became scarce and bread dear. From this cause, together with the successes of the French, there was great agitation in the public mind. The war became unpopular. Parliament, therefore, was convoked on an early day. It met on the 29th of October, and as the king was going down to the house of lords to open the session he was surrounded by a mob who vociferously demanded peace, cheap bread, and Pitt's dismissal! When the state-coach reached the ordnance office, a bullet, supposed to have been discharged from an air-gun, passed through the window, and on his majesty's return the same cries assailed him, and stones were hurled at him as he passed along. Mischief might have ensued if a detachment of horse guards had not appeared to protect him. So gross an outrage as this had not been offered to any monarch of Great Britain since the days of Charles I.; but his majesty received some consolation from the assurances of loyalty to his person contained in numerous addresses sent to him from all parts of the kingdom. As regards the cry for peace, the voice of the events of the war on the continent? What noted events occurred in Paris?

594. What causes now gave rise to agitation in England? How was the king assailed on the opening of the session?



mob received no attention. On the contrary, in his speech, the king, while expressing a desire to see a restoration of peace on just and reasonable terms, recommended energy in order to meet the continuance of war. In this session a bill was passed for the prevention of seditious meetings; a bill which went so far as to restrict the right of the people to assemble for petitioning the crown and the legislature, and for discussing political subjects. This was almost sufficient to provoke and create the evils it was intended to prevent, but the recent outrage on his majesty had the effect of obtaining more than usual support for ministers: the bill was carried by a large majority. Little more was done in parliament before the recess, except the voting of supplies and receiving information relative to the failure of the crop of the preceding harvest. The number of seamen voted was, 110,000, and of land forces, 207,000; and a loan of 20,500,000*l.*, including a vote of credit, was granted.

595. *Motions for peace—Further supplies—Military affairs on the Continent—French expedition to Ireland, 1796.*—After the Christmas recess, addresses were moved to the king praying him to communicate to the executive government of France his readiness to meet any disposition to negotiate for a general peace. Fox, as usual, was the great orator in support of these addresses, but Pitt demonstrated that the war was one of necessity and policy, and the motions were lost by immense majorities. In order to meet the expenses of the war, many taxes were augmented, and two loans were contracted amounting to 25,000,000*l.* This session terminated on the 19th of May. Before its termination the directory of France caused it to be made known to the British government that the directory was desirous of peace, but they would insist on keeping Belgium, or all the Austrian dominions in the low countries; they having been annexed to the French republic by an irrevocable constitutional decree. It was, however, clear that the directory did not desire peace; or that if they did, it would be on terms that could not be accepted. Pitt, therefore, prepared for a vigorous prosecution of the war; in which he was greatly aided by that eminent retired statesman Burke. In the course of this summer Burke published his celebrated "*Letters on a Regicide Peace*," which are among the most splendid efforts of his mind, and which had great weight in confirming both

594. What bill was passed in this session, and what was its character? What supplies were voted?

595. What motions were made in parliament in 1796, and with what success? What supplies were granted? What celebrated letters



ministers and the people in their determination still to continue the struggle. This was the last effort made by Burke to stem the onward torrent of the French Revolution. But while Burke was writing, the French were acting. Germany was invaded by their forces, but they were there thrice defeated by the archduke Charles, and driven back in broken columns *to and over* the Rhine. In Italy the French were more successful. A series of victories were there gained by Napoleon Buonaparte. His victories were so rapid and decisive that the king of Sardinia sued for peace, which he obtained on condition that the duchy of Savoy and the country of Nice should be ceded to the conquerors for ever.

Napoleon pursued his victorious career: he defeated the Austrians at Lodi, and all Lombardy was at the feet of the conqueror, except Mantua. It was after gaining this victory at Lodi that the idea first flashed across the mind of Napoleon that he might become a great actor in the world's drama. Several engagements afterwards took place between the Austrians and French, in all which Napoleon was the conqueror. Almost all Italy was overrun by him; and wherever he went, the inhabitants were plundered and maltreated by his republican army. Napoleon felt that its entire conquest was within his reach. Treaties and the rights of foreign powers were disregarded by him. In open contempt of these he had invaded Tuscany and taken possession of Leghorn: his excuse being the dislodgment of the English. In consequence of this movement Nelson blockaded that port, and landed a force in the Isle of Elba in order to secure Porto Ferrajo. Nelson, also, seized on the island of Capraia, which had formerly belonged to Corsica, but he was not seconded by the British government. Orders were, indeed, given for the evacuation of Corsica itself, and thus Nelson's vigorous measures were frustrated. In the course of this year an attempt was made by the Dutch to retake the Cape of Good Hope, but the whole of the squadron sent for that purpose was captured without firing a gun. The French fitted out a fleet, which embarked at Brest, with 15,000 troops, to aid the papists in Ireland who had long sought to overthrow the protestant supremacy, but this fleet had scarcely left the harbour when it was dispersed by a storm. Several ships were lost, and the rest were obliged

did Burke now publish, and what was their effect? By whom were the French defeated in Germany? How did the French arms progress in Italy? What operations did Nelson commence, and what was their result? What were the results of the Dutch expedition against the Cape of Good Hope, and the French expedition against



to return to France. During the year the maritime power of France suffered greatly, and her commerce was greatly diminished by the efforts of British cruisers. Upwards of seventy armed vessels were captured: among which were five ships of the line and twelve frigates. These were blows severely felt by the French nation.

596. *A new election—Lord Malmesbury's mission to Paris—Cash payments stopped at the Bank—Mutiny in the fleets—French descent on Wales—Naval operations—The war on the Continent, 1797.*—At the close of last session parliament was dissolved by proclamation. The result of the election left parties in a similar position as before. This was seen when parliament re-assembled. A universal spirit of loyalty prevailed in the house, for all that Pitt required for carrying on the war, though greater in amount than heretofore, was freely voted; and all that Pitt uttered respecting the courage and resources of the nation, and our capability of withstanding all our enemies, was loudly cheered, while Fox, who opposed him, was heard in dead silence. But though ministers prepared for the continuance of the war, in the autumn of 1796 Lord Malmesbury was sent to Paris to treat for peace. At this time, however, peace was not easily obtained. Elated by their successes in Italy, and their hopes from Ireland, the republicans were not disposed to listen to any overtures with complacency, and lord Malmesbury's mission resulted in a complete failure. The directory demanded, as a preliminary, the retention of all territories of which the war had given them possession: a demand too arrogant to be conceded. Such was the general opinion throughout the country, and parliament endorsed the sentiment. Yet, if there ever was a time when peace might have been purchased at any cost, however great, and even humiliating, it was at the present moment. The internal state of the kingdom was one of gloom and apprehension: serious calamities threatened the realm. Owing to the large sums obtained by government from the bank of England, which sums were likely to be increased tenfold, that establishment became alarmed for its own integrity. To add to its embarrassment, the concurrent dread of an invasion induced multitudes to hoard their cash, and convert the notes they held into gold. In this emergency

Ireland? What blows were inflicted on the maritime power and commerce of France?

596. What was the result of the election in 1796? Who was sent in the autumn of that year to treat for peace? What was the result of his mission? In what state was England at the opening of the year 1797? What was the first cause of the gloom which prevailed?



an order in council appeared, prohibiting the directors from paying their notes in specie, and parliament passed an act confirming the order, with some limitations. Bank notes were in certain cases made a legal tender, and their issue by private persons was authorized for sums as small as one pound sterling. From this time, till 1819, the circulation of gold coin in a great measure ceased, and paper became the general medium of commercial intercourse. The alarm caused by the suspension of cash payments at the bank was accompanied by another cause of alarm of far greater magnitude. All hope of final success in the momentous war now carried on lay in the British fleet. The wooden walls of old England are ever her sure defence, and the best means of obtaining victory over her enemies abroad. But at this time there was wide-spread mutiny among the British sailors. Red flags were everywhere hoisted, and when signals were made to prepare for sea, they were disobeyed. The mutiny arose respecting pay and provisions, and it was not till the month of June, when some of the ships were induced to desert the rebels, that it was put down. Some of its ringleaders were executed, some were flogged through the fleet, while others were left under sentence on board prison ships: the mass received the king's pardon. But this year of mutinies was not altogether inglorious to the British navy. Sir John Jervis, with a fleet of fifteen sail of the line, defeated a combined French and Spanish fleet of twenty-seven sail: a victory which was chiefly due to the prompt and daring conduct of Nelson, who was with the English admiral, and whose watchword was, as he went into the battle, "Westminster Abbey, or victory!" Another great naval victory was obtained by admiral Duncan over a Dutch fleet off Camperdown, under admiral de Winter. This was a hard-fought battle, for the Dutch ardently contended for the victory, and de Winter did not strike his flag before all his masts fell overboard, and half his crew were either killed or wounded: at its termination every Dutch ship was in a disabled state, and twelve ships out of sixteen remained as trophies of victory to the English. Early in this year the French sent an expedition of about 1500 men, who landed in Cardigan Bay but the Welsh peasantry, accompanied by a mixed force of seven hundred

596. How was the bank of England relieved from its difficulties? Till what period did the paper currency continue? What new cause of alarm arose in England? How and when was the mutiny of the British fleet suppressed? What victory was gained by admiral Jervis? Who mainly contributed to this victory, and what was his watchword? What great naval victory was gained by admiral Duncan? What was



militia fencibles and yeomanry, armed with scythes, sickles, and pitchforks, marched forth to meet the invaders, and the French commander capitulated: while the two frigates which accompanied the expedition were captured on their return to Brest. In Italy the French pursued their career of victory. It was in vain that the Austrian legions endeavoured to stem their onward progress. Victory after victory followed, and the enemy advanced to within thirty-six leagues of the Austrian capital. Thus everywhere defeated, the Austrian emperor sued for peace, and a treaty was signed between him and the French republic at Campo Formio. By these victories France remained in possession of Savoy, Nice, Avignon, and Belgium. She was also mistress of Italy and Holland, and could reckon on the dependence of the German empire, owing to the cession of the left bank of the Rhine. The German empire was at her mercy, and the government of the church and the kingdom of Naples trembled for their fate. As for Spain, she was wholly in the hands of the French. England now stood alone in the contest, and, though she was mistress of the ocean, it was deemed advisable to renew pacific negotiations with the enemy. But the directory were now more arrogant than ever. There was a belief existing in France that England was on the verge of ruin, and the directory imagined that they would soon triumph over her as they had done over the nations on the continent, and hence they made demands which could only be received with scorn and contumely. In France an attempt was made to break the power of the directory, but the army was on its side, and it signally failed. Many of their opponents belonging to the Council of Five Hundred were deported to Cayenne, while many others were excluded, and the vacancies filled up with men willing to support the directory in all their revolutionary measures and plans of invasion and conquest.

597. *Rebellion in Ireland—Invasion of Belgium, and expedition to Minorca—The battle of the Nile—The first Income-tax—Treaty with Russia, etc., 1798.*—The early session of parliament this year presents no marked features of legislation. The chief measures adopted were for the more successful prosecution of the war, and the maintenance of the public safety. While parliament was sitting, a rebellion broke

the fate of the French expedition into Wales? What progress did the French arms make in Italy? What was the result of their victories? What kingdoms remained at their mercy? What results followed a second attempt by England to negotiate for peace? In what position was the French directory at the close of the year?

597. What were the chief measures of the session of 1798? What



out in Ireland; a rebellion which had its origin in the association of United Irishmen, first instituted for obtaining universal suffrage. This association was afterwards reorganized for the accomplishment of a revolution and a separation from Great Britain; parliamentary reform and catholic emancipation being only pretexts to cover ulterior designs. For the last ten years concessions had been made to the Irish catholics, but the more they obtained the more they demanded. The association sought the aid of the French directory, but that body would only grant it on condition that they might be permitted to send troops sufficient to effect the conquest of the country. The directory evidently wanted Ireland for themselves, but the Irish "patriots" had no wish to exchange masters; they wished to rule alone. They had, indeed, prepared for an insurrection without waiting for continental assistance. Through a long succession of ages they had been ripe for rebellion, and, deeming this period of war and strife a fit opportunity, they took up arms. The rebellion commenced by midnight outrages. The most savage atrocities were committed on those whom the association were taught to consider as enemies, while outrages were severely retaliated by the orangemen and military. The danger increased; armed bodies of men, to the extent of many thousands, assembled and commenced a regular warfare. They were, however, defeated in two engagements, and they never rallied again. Several of the ringleaders were captured and executed, and others received pardon. After the rebellion had been crushed, three French frigates reached Killaloe, and threw on shore nine hundred troops of the line, but they were all taken prisoners of war. Another French armament reached the western coast of Ireland, but it was met by Sir John Warren with a squadron of British ships, and one French fleet of the line and three frigates were captured. Thus Ireland was again quieted, except that a few isolated bands still remained committing midnight outrages. In the course of this year captain Popham, with a small squadron, with troops on board, under the command of colonel Coote, invaded Belgium. Bruges was bombarded, and the sluices in the canal blown up; but on returning to the beach to re-embark, the soldiers were hemmed in by a superior force, and Coote was compelled to surrender. An expedition to Minorca was more successful; a British force under sir

happened in Ireland this year? What was the result of this rebellion? What were the results of two expeditions of the French to aid the malcontents in Ireland? With what success was the invasion of Belgium attended? What result attended an expedition to Majorca?



Charles Stuart, compelled the Spanish governor to surrender that island by capitulation. But a far more glorious and important victory was obtained by Nelson at Aboukir bay. The grand aim of the French directory was, at this time, the seizing and colonizing of Egypt. Napoleon was engaged in this expedition, and on his arrival he captured Alexandria, defeated the Mamelukes near the great pyramids of Egypt, and then took possession of Cairo. But here his successes ended. Nelson, who had been long looking out for the French fleet, at length discovered that it was safely moored in Aboukir bay. They were anchored in compact line of battle, describing an obtuse angle, and were flanked by gunboats, four frigates, and a battery of guns and mortars on an island in the van. This position was most formidable, but, nothing daunted, Nelson gave the signal for attack, and out of thirteen ships belonging to the French, two only escaped his vengeance. The British loss in killed and wounded was only 895, while the French lost in killed, wounded, and captured 8330 men. Nelson said rightly, that "victory" was not a word strong enough for such a scene; it was a conquest. The effect of this battle in Europe was instantaneous and surprising; and it filled all England with transports of joy and triumph. Nelson was raised to the peerage, with the title of Baron Nelson of the Nile. After this achievement a detachment of Nelson's squadron captured the island of Gozo, which is separated from Malta by a narrow channel, and Malta itself was closely blockaded. On the reassembling of parliament in November, his majesty spoke with exultation of the victory of the Nile, and congratulated the country on the prospect of new alliances, by which it might be anticipated that the power of France would be humbled. With such a prospect the supplies of the next year were freely voted, the amount being 29,270,000*l*. Pitt proposed a new plan for raising a considerable part of this sum, namely, by an income-tax, a measure which met with some opposition, but which passed by a large majority. Pitt anticipated a revenue from this tax of 10,000,000*l*., the yearly income of the whole nation being at this period about 102,000,000*l*. The treaties to which the king alluded in his speech referred to the Porte, Russia, and Naples, all which powers entered into an alliance, offensive and defensive, against the French

597. What great victory was obtained by Nelson, and how was he rewarded? How was a part of his squadron employed at the close of the year? What were the effects of his victory in England? What supplies were granted for the prosecution of the war? What new tax was now imposed? What treaties and alliances were now made?



directory. Italy was to be the first field of action, the design being to save the king of Naples from French domination. At this time the czarina Catherine was dead, and her son Paul, who had succeeded her, adopted a line of policy different from that of his mother. Three millions of money were granted Paul to aid him in the war, and three millions more were voted to his majesty for making such other engagements as he might contract. On this occasion Mr. Canning, afterwards destined to become great in the councils of the nation, eloquently reviewed the foreign policy of ministers, and vindicated their treaties and alliances; and his speech inspired the country at large with admiration of his principles and talents.

598. *Union with Ireland considered—Campaign in Italy, etc.—The French Consulate—Affairs of India, 1799.*—Before the recent rebellion in Ireland broke out, a plan had been discussed and seriously entertained, having for its object the union of that country, under one legislature, with Great Britain and Scotland. The resolutions proposed as the basis of this measure were these: that the two islands should be united into one kingdom; that the succession to the crown should be settled as it already existed; that the united realm should be represented by one parliament; that the churches of England and Ireland should be preserved as by law established; that the Irish should be entitled to the same privileges as the English in point of navigation and trade; and that all laws in force at the time of the union, and all the courts, civil or ecclesiastical, should remain as already established, subject only to such alterations as circumstances might recommend to the united parliament. These resolutions, after some warm debates, were agreed to, and sent up to the peers, but it was not till next year that the peers agreed to them, and then the union was consummated: henceforth the two islands became one kingdom by the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Parliament was prorogued in July, on which occasion his majesty declared that the decision and energy of his ally, the emperor of Russia, would enable him to employ the means entrusted to him advantageously, both for the safety and honour of England, and the independence of Europe. The campaign com-

597. Where were the first operations of the allies to be carried on, and for what purpose? What sums were granted as subsidies? What great statesman now first came into notice, and how did he obtain popularity?

598. What was the nature of the resolutions adopted in parliament for the union of Ireland with Great Britain? When did that union



menced in Italy, where the French had, at the commencement of the year, renewed their victorious career. Naples fell under their power, and the king was obliged to take refuge on board the British fleet. The conquerors soon occupied all Tuscany, but Sicily was preserved from their domination by the energy of Nelson, assisted by British troops under sir Charles Stuart. It was at this time that the Russians appeared to take part in the war. Austria, also, commenced the war anew against the French, and that with redoubled energy. The Austrian troops drove the French out of Switzerland, and, entering Upper Italy, obliged them to retire beyond the Mincio. While the Austrian general, Melas, was giving chase to them, Suvaroff came up with 50,000 Russians, and assumed the chief command over both armies. Suvaroff gained a great victory at Cassano, by which the fate of the Cisalpine republic was sealed. Everywhere the people rose in arms against the French, and the native democrats, whom the French had set up as a government, surrendered. Suvaroff entered Milan in triumph; after which he gained several important victories over the French under Moreau and Massena, and opened a way into the heart of Switzerland, when the campaign closed; the Russian general marched to Augsburg and left the French absolute masters of that country. The kingdom of Naples was recovered by cardinal Ruffo, assisted by Nelson, in the course of the summer; and a small detachment of Nelson's fleet recovered possession of Rome; the British standard waved over the Capitol, captain Louis, for a time, acting as governor of the Eternal city. In the meantime English and Russian troops were engaged in an attempt to liberate Holland from French domination, and a battle was fought at Egmont, which was favourable to the British; but the allied army became afterwards in such a critical position from the strength of the enemy, the severity of the weather, and the indifference of the Stadtholder, that the duke of York, who commanded, was compelled to retreat. Before his troops could re-embark, the duke was compelled to sign a convention, by which it was agreed that the allied forces should leave Holland without molestation, on condition that eight thousand French and Batavian prisoners, then in England, should be released. In

take place? Where did the campaign of 1799 commence? What achievements did the French make in Italy? Were these achievements permanent? By what armies were the French defeated, and who commanded them? By whom was Naples recovered from the French? By whom was Rome re-captured? What resulted from the English and Russian operations in Holland? What victories did



Egypt, Napoleon, that man of destiny, as he called himself, this year stormed Gaza and Jaffa, and swept everything before him until he came to the walls of Acre. Here, however, he received a check. Aided by Sir Sydney Smith, with some of his sailors and marines, the pasha Djezzar of that place made such a noble defence, that after spending sixty days before its walls, and making seven or eight fruitless assaults, Napoleon was compelled to raise the siege and return to Cairo. He afterwards defeated an army of ten thousand Turks near the coast, and then set sail for Paris. His return agitated all France and all Europe, for none could tell what game, fraught with blood, that bold soldier might next play. On his arrival in Paris he found that Italy was lost; that the French armies were almost everywhere defeated; that the directory were quarrelling among themselves; and that the people were ripe for another revolution. Here, then, was another field for his ambition, and having consulted with chiefs of parties, and officers of the army, he soon decided what course he should pursue. By the roar of the cannon, and the edge of the sword, he swept away the directory as in a moment, and three consuls were established in its place; Napoleon himself, and Sieyes, and Ducos, the men who concerted together to bring about this new revolution. Thus the agitated career of the French revolution closed almost at the very point from whence it set out—in despotism, and all the hopes of the blessings of liberty were dashed to the ground by a man of mean origin—a Corsican adventurer. Such are the leading features of the events of this year on the Continent. In the East Indies the British armies had been engaged in a war with Tippoo Sultaun, who had again taken up arms to destroy the British dominion in India. Tippoo, this time, paid dearly for his implacable hatred to the British. He was defeated by generals Harris and Stuart, and compelled to take refuge in his fortified capital. Seringapatam was besieged, and stormed, and captured; and while two of his sons were taken alive, he himself was slain. His territories were divided among his enemies, the English taking possession of the largest portion, with Seringapatam his capital. Thus ended a dynasty which was founded by an adventurer on the ruins of the house of Mysore; a dynasty which commenced and ended its career in blood.

599. *Napoleon seeks for peace with England—Measures in*

Napoleon gain in Egypt, and where was he defeated? When Napoleon returned to Paris, in what state did he find the directory and the people? What great change did he effect in the government? What events happened this year in the East Indies?



*parliament—Campaign in Italy—Capture of Malta—Naval operations, 1800.*—At the close of last year Napoleon addressed a letter from the ancient palace of the Bourbons to the king of Great Britain, indicating a desire of peace. The answer to this letter was to the effect that the French government afforded no ground of trust; but, notwithstanding this repulse, another attempt at negotiation was made by him, which was equally unsuccessful. This correspondence was the first subject of importance which engaged the attention of parliament this session, and while the minority expressed regret that the door of hope was thus closed against all prospect of pacification, the majority approved of what had been done, and it was determined to prosecute the war with vigour. The supplies voted were more liberal than ever; the total amount being 47,900,739*l*. In this session the act for suspending the Habeas Corpus Bill was renewed. As distress still prevailed, from the scarcity of corn, an act was passed prohibiting the sale of bread which had not been baked twenty-four hours; stale bread being supposed to satisfy the appetite sooner than new bread. Both houses also gravely passed resolutions binding both lords and commons to lessen the consumption of bread in their families, by using other articles of food as a substitute. Parliament was prorogued on the 29th of July, and his majesty's speech was tinged with the notes of humiliation, for while the campaign of this year had been commenced with success, it had ended in defeat. Incensed at his failure in his attempt to negotiate for peace, Napoleon made an adroit use of it for reviving martial courage and enthusiasm in France. Extraordinary efforts were made by the consulate for carrying on the war with success. At first their armies were signally defeated in Italy; Massena and Soult were both doomed to suffer reverses; Massena, who had been driven by the Austrians within the ramparts of Genoa, capitulated; and Soult's forces turned their backs upon their enemies. But here the successes of the allies ended; Napoleon assumed the command of the army in Italy, and a battle was fought on the plain of Marengo, which placed Italy again under the power of France. A succession of battles was also lost by the Austrians in Germany; and the last, which was fought at Hohenlinden, again opened the road to Vienna to the victorious French under Moreau, Brune, and Macdonald. In

599. What attempts did Napoleon make to obtain peace, and how were they received by England? What supplies were this year voted? What bills were passed this session? What use did Napoleon make of his failure to obtain peace with England? What successes attended



this emergency the emperor Francis sued for peace, and the British government was obliged to release him from the terms of his alliance, in order that his crown might be saved. The king of Sardinia also obtained peace with the French consulate, chiefly through the mediation of the czar Paul of Russia, who now began to show signs of defection. Through the same mediation Italy was treated with leniency; and pope Pius VII., recently elected to the pontificate, was allowed to retain the reins of government. The British armies this year were not actively engaged in the war; but an important conquest was made by major-general Pigott in the Mediterranean. The island of Malta surrendered to him, and from that time it became a pillar of the British throne. The naval operations of England were various, but were not attended with any great results; the capture of the Dutch island of Curacao, and the small island of Goree, on the western coast of Africa, being the sum of the British achievements.

600. *Riots in England—The first imperial parliament—Resignation of Pitt—Addington prime minister—War with the northern powers—Expedition to Egypt—Continental affairs—Treaty of Amiens, 1800–1.*—At the close of the year 1800 the scarcity of grain still continued in England. This, together with the foreign reverses which had taken place, greatly depressed the national spirit. Several riots took place throughout the kingdom, and London itself was much agitated. In this emergency parliament assembled, and passed a number of acts granting bounties on the importation of foreign corn; enjoining the baking of mixed and inferior flour; suspending the distillation of spirits from grain, etc.; but the hand of charity did more good than all these acts passed by the legislature; it was opened wide, and while the sufferings of the poor were thereby greatly alleviated, their complaints and turbulence were softened down. The session closed on the last day of the year, and as the time fixed for the union of Great Britain and Ireland arrived, the imperial parliament—as the united parliament was to be denominated—was appointed to meet on the 22nd of January, 1801. On that day it accordingly met, but the

the Austrian arms at the commencement of this year's campaign? What great battle did Napoleon gain, and what were the results of his victory? What successes attended the British arms, and of what character were these successes?

600. What was the state of England at the close of the year 1801? How was the distress relieved? What new title did parliament assume, and why? When did it first assemble? Why did Pitt resign his



king did not meet it till the 2nd of February. The speech on this occasion announced that the court of St. Petersburg had proceeded to commit outrages against British ships; and that a convention had been concluded by that court with those of Copenhagen and Stockholm, by which they were engaged to re-establish a new code of maritime law, inconsistent with the rights and privileges of England. Supported by parliament, ministers prepared to meet this new danger, by ordering a fleet to be fitted out for operations in the Baltic. This was almost the last act of Pitt's ministry. In bringing about the union of England and Ireland, Pitt had promised the Irish catholics a complete participation in political privileges, as soon as that union should be consummated. He now wished to perform that promise, but he found that the king and several members of the cabinet council opposed his views. Under these circumstances Pitt resigned office, and the formation of a new cabinet was entrusted by his majesty to Mr. Addington, who became first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. Before Pitt retired he completed the financial arrangements for the year, after which he quitted office. By his enemies it was said that his wish to obtain catholic emancipation was but a mere pretext for resigning his post, and that the real cause was, that he was now convinced he had involved the country in a labyrinth from which he had not the power to extricate it; being too weak to carry on war, and too proud to make peace. This was unjust: Pitt was still as undismayed as ever. Among the last words he uttered as prime minister were, indeed, words full of hope and confidence: "He was convinced," he said, "that the British fleet would with one blow shatter the coalition of the north." These words were almost prophetic. Addington's sentiments were anti-warlike, but he found there was no alternative but to continue the contest. The British fleet, ordered for the Baltic by the late ministry, therefore proceeded on its mission. It was placed under the command of admiral sir Hyde Parker, assisted by vice-admiral Nelson and rear-admiral Tolly. The king of Denmark had been recently joined by the king of Prussia, who had invaded Hanover and reduced it to his own dominion. The Danes had also taken possession of Hamburg for the alleged purpose of stopping the British trade to that port. It was against Denmark, therefore, that the British fleet commenced its operations. In March fifty-four vessels, under Parker and Nelson, broke through the Sound, and appeared off Copenhagen. The post as prime minister? By whom was he succeeded? What great victory did Nelson now obtain? How was the northern confederacy



Danes fought valiantly, and after three hours' fighting few of their vessels had ceased firing, while some of the English ships had sustained much injury. Sir Hyde Parker made a signal for retreat, but Nelson had no idea of retreating. On the contrary, having put his glass to his blind eye, he jocosely remarked that he could not see the recall, and gave strict orders that his own signal for close action should be kept flying, and if necessary nailed to the mast. The action, therefore, continued with unabated fury, until Nelson had either destroyed or captured the entire Danish fleet. Denmark was compelled to consent to an armistice, upon the condition that during the time the armed neutrality should be suspended. The English now sailed into the Baltic sea to attack the Swedish-Russian fleet, but an event took place which stopped its operations. The Russian emperor Paul was assassinated, and his son Alexander concluded a convention with England, in which he acknowledged the British claims to the right of search, and renounced his claim to the possession of Malta—the two chief causes of his predecessor Paul's recent hostility to England. Sweden now laid down her arms, and the northern confederacy was dissolved. About a fortnight before the battle of Copenhagen, the fate of the French army in Egypt was sealed. A British army under sir Ralph Abercrombie landed at Aboukir Bay, and gained a great victory near Alexandria over the French, by which their power was broken. The brave Abercrombie fell in this battle, but general Hutchinson, who assumed the command, followed up the victory by driving the French from all their fortified places, until Egypt was cleared of the enemy. On the continent Napoleon had declared war against Portugal, and a French army was sent through Spain to attack that country. Almeida was invested, and Lisbon and Oporto menaced, when the court of Lisbon consented to a treaty by which Napoleon undertook to withdraw his troops on certain conditions, one of which was that Portugal should shut all her roads and ports against all English vessels, until peace was concluded with England. There were many circumstances which rendered the first consul at this time really desirous for a suspension of hostilities with this country. Preliminaries were agreed to on the 1st of October, and in the month of November the marquis Cornwallis went over to France as ambassador plenipotentiary. He was received by the Parisians with joy, for they, like many of the English nation, were desirous of

dissolved? What events took place in Egypt? By whom were these victories obtained? What events happened in Portugal? On what



peace. From Paris his lordship repaired to Amiens, where in March, 1802, a treaty was signed, the chief terms of which were: that England should restore all her acquisitions, except the island of Trinidad, and the Dutch possessions in Ceylon; that the Cape of Good Hope should be restored to the Dutch as a free port; that the Porte should preserve its integrity; that France should reorganize the republic of the Seven Islands; and that the prince of Orange should receive compensation for his loss of property and power. Thus ended the first act of the revolutionary war; an act, however, which was soon to be followed by a second, in which war was carried on with greater asperity than ever, and which resulted in more momentous consequences.

601. *Parliamentary measures—Preparations for hostility—The new parliament, 1802.*—Parliament met in the autumn of 1801, but the chief business done before the Christmas recess was to debate on the preliminaries of the peace of Amiens, some defending—and among them Pitt himself—what the Addington ministry were doing, and others condemning their line of policy. During this session an important act was passed for consolidating the existing militia laws, and for the augmentation of that force. In announcing the budget, Mr. Addington stated the intention of government to abolish the income-tax—an announcement which gave great satisfaction to the whole country, that impost being then, as it is at the present time, unpopular. Provisions were made for their royal highnesses the dukes of Sussex and Cambridge, and the income of the prince of Wales was increased for a period, in order to relieve him from embarrassments. Parliament was prorogued on the 28th of June, and on the next day it was dissolved by proclamation. The newly-returned parliament met in November, on which occasion his majesty intimated in his speech from the throne that the renewal of war was possible. Indeed, scarcely had peace been proclaimed, when a little cloud in the horizon betokened the rising of another furious storm. The French government had sent a naval force for the purpose of recovering St. Domingo and Guadaloupe from the revolted negroes, and a British squadron of seven sail of the line was despatched to watch its motions. Moreover, the interference and intrigues condition did Napoleon consent to withdraw his troops from Portugal? What were the conditions of a treaty now signed between England and France, and where was it signed?

601. What were the principal measures of parliament in the session of 1801-2? When was parliament dissolved, and when did the new parliament meet? What events gave signs of a future renewal of war?



of the first consul in various parts of Europe, and his conduct in Paris itself, manifested that peace could not be of long duration. Ambition was discerned in his every movement; and his aim was evidently to become the despot and sole ruler of France. His very first act was to put the press in chains. Fouche, with an "army of arguses and police servants" mastered the domain of thought itself. Napoleon's despotism extended to the civil code, and even to religion and the church: by his fiat there was to be but one liturgy and one catechism in all France. But what alarmed the Parisians most was, the creation of a legion of honour; that is, the establishment of a new nobility in the place of that which the revolutionists had destroyed. Public opinion declared loudly against this institution, but Napoleon was strong enough to defy public opinion, for shortly after the peace of Amiens he had been created consul for life, and he knew that the army would support him in all his measures. Hence it was that his majesty, on the opening of parliament, sounded the alarm of war, and recommended the adoption of all those means which were best calculated to preserve peace. The responsive addresses were carried in both houses without a division, and augmentations of the army and navy were unanimously granted. Even Sheridan, who had hitherto sided with Fox, made a notable patriotic speech, in which he declared that the time had arrived to adopt vigorous measures of defence; and that if aggression should occur, it should be met with a firm determination to perish in the same grave with the honour and independence of the country.

602. *Trial of Colonel Despard*.—*Parliamentary proceedings—War proclaimed with France: its causes—War with Holland, the, 1803.*—Late in the autumn of the year 1802 a conspiracy against the king and government was discovered. Colonel Despard, an officer of courage and ability, organized a society in London for the subversion of that tyranny which he attributed to the ministers of his sovereign. This scheme had for its chief objects the constitutional independence of Great Britain and Ireland, and an equalization and extension of rights among the people. Despard, however, with twenty-nine of his followers, were arrested while deliberating on the execution of their designs, and he and six of his associates were convicted on trial in February 1803, and executed: the rest were either acquitted by the jury or pardoned on their

601. How did parliament prepare to meet the coming danger? How did Sheridan act on this occasion?

602. Who was colonel Despard? What conspiracy did he concoct, and what were its results? What particular messages did the king



recommendation. Parliament met on the 23rd of February, but no debate of importance occurred until the 8th of March, when the king sent a message to both houses, representing that the preparations made in the French and Dutch ports were grounds for defensive arrangements. Discussions of great importance, he said, were being carried on between his majesty and the French government, the result of which was uncertain. Addresses were voted unanimously, and in compliance with the ministerial demands, ten thousand seamen were added to the existing number. The result of the pending negotiations between the two governments was soon made known. In May another message was sent to both houses, to the effect that our ambassador in Paris was recalled, and that the French ambassador in London had taken his departure. On the next day an order of council was published, directing that reprisals be granted against the ships, goods, and subjects of the French republic; and a proclamation was issued for an embargo belonging either to the French and Batavian republics, or to any countries occupied by French arms. The subject of war was warmly debated in both houses, but the approaching contest was ably defended by orators in the lords and commons, and ministers received the support they required. On this occasion Pitt, after a long absence, addressed the commons in favour of war, and his speech made such an impression on the house, that Fox himself said that if Demosthenes had been present "he must have admired, and might have envied." The causes which led to this second act in the bloody drama were various. Some have been already noticed; others were these:—that while Napoleon required England to fulfil every stipulation in the treaty of Amiens, he denied our right of interference in his own political arrangements; that he had sent persons to reside in our maritime towns under a pretence of trade; but in reality to procure such intelligence as might be useful in case of war; and that the French consul was constantly boasting that Great Britain could not contend alone with France. On the other hand Napoleon complained that the British press canvassed his character too freely; that the English had given unlimited protection to French emigrants; and that the British government still retained Malta. This latter, indeed, was his principal ground of complaint; but when he demanded to know why Malta was not evacuated according to stipulation, the answer he received was, because he had increased his European

send to parliament in the session of 1803? How were they received? Can you name any of the causes which led to the renewal of war?



territories, and threatened Egypt. Such were the circumstances under which war was renewed: a war which, for the inveteracy of its spirit, and the variety of its events, stands unrivalled in the history of the world. In the course of the negotiations England required that the French troops should be withdrawn from Holland, and as this was refused, war was denounced against that State: the British ambassador was recalled from the Hague, and orders were given for the issuing of letters of marque and reprisals against the Batavian republic. As a precautionary measure for the defence of the country, a bill was passed in parliament for embodying a new species of militia, to be denominated the "army of reserve." Another bill of still greater magnitude was also passed, which comprehended the arming and training of the whole male population. A noble response was made to this measure by the nation: a large body of volunteers started up in every part of the country, and 400,000 men were soon collected on the coasts to defend their homes and firesides. They rose,

"Like one man, to combat in the sight  
Of a just God, for liberty and right."

603. *Insurrection in Ireland—Loyalty of the Prince of Wales—Movements of the French—Naval Conquests—War in the East Indies.*—During this summer another insurrection broke out in Ireland. This was headed by Robert Emmett, a brother of the barrister of that name, who had taken a conspicuous part in the recent rebellion. It occurred in Dublin, where, on the 23rd of July, a mob assembled, and at a preconcerted signal a number of men rode furiously through the streets of the city, and quickly commenced their outrages. The chief justice of Dublin was stabbed to death with pikes, colonel Brown was shot, and many were wounded. But this conspiracy was soon quelled: a small body of regular troops dispersed the rioters, and captured the ringleaders. Emmett and several others were executed. On this occasion the Roman catholics rendered government important aid in quelling the rebellion, so that the rioters appear to have been a mere rabble. In England loyalty existed in every section of the community: even the prince of Wales, whose life had been spent in gaieties, claimed military promotion, and required to be placed in a situation where his example might contribute

Why was war proclaimed against Holland? What measures were taken for the defence of the country, and what was their results?

603. Who headed a rebellion in Ireland in 1803? Of what character was this rebellion, and how was it suppressed? How did the



to excite the loyalty of the people. He was already a colonel of the dragoons, but he wanted some higher post. But in this he was thwarted by his majesty, who simply replied that the prince would have an opportunity of manifesting his zeal at the head of his regiment. Few people thought that he would take that step, but nevertheless, piqued at the answer he had received, he joined his regiment at Brighton, remarking that he was bound to do so by "the king's precise order, and by that honest zeal which was not allowed any fitter sphere for its action." At this time there was an apparent danger. The French forces occupied Hanover, and Napoleon levied contributions not only on the rich towns of Hamburg and Bremen, but on the Batavian and Italian republics. He also drew pecuniary assistance from Spain and Portugal, and augmented the supplies of the French treasury by the sale of Louisiana to the United States. Rome and Naples were plundered by him on base pretexts, and the latter was compelled to let the French occupy a part of its territories and ports. The gold obtained by these means was for the sustenance of his "army of invasion," for at this time he had prepared an army and flotilla to invade England. This army was swelled by contingents of allied states, and the command was given to Soult, Davoust, and Ney: generals who went heart and soul with him in all his enterprizes. This "army of invasion," however, did nothing but look across the channel towards the white cliffs of Albion. In the meantime the British navy had commenced operations. A squadron blockaded the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser; the port and town of Granville were attacked by another squadron, and a number of vessels were destroyed; the town and fort of Dieppe were bombarded; and several Dutch ports were also bombarded, and the vessels therein doomed to destruction. In the course of the year the British captured the islands of St. Lucie, Tobago, Demarara, Essequibo, Berbice, and Miquelon, and compelled the French to abandon the colony of St. Domingo. The British arms were equally successful this year in the East Indies, where a new enemy had appeared in the Mahratta confederacy. One Perron, a Frenchman, lent his aid in this new war in India. Perron, indeed, was the chief cause of this war. In 1802, when Scindiah made war upon the Mahratta sovereign of Poona, and expelled him from his territories, Perron, who was commander in chief prince of Wales exhibit his loyalty? What grand object had Napoleon in view this year? How did he prepare for it? What were the leading features of the British naval operations this year? What new war



of the forces of Scindiah, lent his valuable assistance. The dispossessed chief now applied to the English for assistance, and a subsidiary treaty was concluded with him at Bassein. Lord Wellesley, the governor-general, had two great objects in view: the restoration of the Peishwa, and the dispersion of the troops which Perron had raised, and which had long given him uneasiness. The war was brief, but bloody. Lord Lake defeated, routed, and annihilated Perron's army, and all the perilous portion of the Mahratta confederacy was shaken, and the power of Scindiah broken. In the course of the year two other armies were sent into the Mahratta dominions, which resulted in the conquest of much Indian territory: the successes of this year, indeed, gave to the British empire not only all the Mahratta dominions between the Jumna and the Ganges, but other collateral and still more important advantages. Later in the year a war ensued with Holkar, but his forces were quickly dispersed, and peace again prevailed in India.

604. *Pitt resumes office—Measures in parliament—Napoleon created Emperor—Naval operations, 1804.*—At this time the Addington ministry had fallen into disrepute. All parties in opposition pursued a systematic attack on government, chiefly through the medium of investigations into the military and naval affairs of the empire. Even Pitt himself joined in the antagonism displayed, and it at length became so inveterate that ministers could only obtain small majorities against their opponents. This led to Addington's resignation as chancellor of the exchequer; and on the 12th of May it was announced that Pitt had been appointed his successor. Pitt's first measure on resuming office was to reduce the additional militia force, and to create in its stead a larger permanent army. Pitt's bill was warmly opposed, but it was carried through the commons by a small majority, and passed the lords with facility. This was the only measure passed this session, except our allowing the exportation of wheat when the price was at or below forty-eight shillings a quarter, and its importation when the price exceeded sixty-six shillings. Recently there had been a great depreciation in the value of grain, arising chiefly from two abundant harvests; and, as it was thought agriculture would be discouraged unless relief was afforded, this bill "to starve the poor" became the law of the land. In the last year the

arose in the East Indies? By whom were Perron's forces defeated, and what were the results of this victory? What new territories were added to the British dominion in India?

604. By what means was Pitt again brought into office? What



income-tax had been renewed, and Pitt, in order to raise the "ways and means," imposed new taxes and duties, and had recourse to loans, annuities, and lotteries. The total sum granted was £53,609,574. Parliament was prorogued on the 31st of July, on which occasion the king expressed a hope that the exertions of England might, by their influence on other states, lead to the re-establishment of a system which would oppose a barrier against those schemes of ambition which threatened the monarchies of Europe. The ambition of Napoleon had this year been exhibited in a clearer light than ever. It was so evident that it created enemies in the very heart of France itself. A conspiracy was formed against him, but it was quickly discovered, and its leaders, Pichegru and Cadoudal, were executed; while Moreau, one of the most able generals of the republic, was banished. The crushing of this conspiracy was coupled by the foulest deed in Napoleon's history—the foul murder of the Duke D'Enghein, the last scion of the house of Condé. But foul as this deed was, it was one of the chief means of Napoleon's exaltation to the throne of France. By it he endeared himself to the old regicidal Jacobin party, who promised to support him in his attempt to mount the imperial throne. Accordingly the senate prayed him that he would govern France under the name of Napoleon Buonaparte, and with the title of emperor; and on the 18th of March a decree was passed styling him Emperor of the French! But by this act the proud nation of France was humbled to the dust. The loud cry of the people had been for equality and liberty, but now they saw themselves under the feet of one of their own order! The Corsican of lowly origin surrounded himself with all the array of courts, and created princes, marshals, and dignitaries by a word of his mouth! Thus supported and exalted, Napoleon stretched every nerve to retain his position. The navy of England was his chief dread, and this year he made great efforts to meet it on equal terms. His fleet was joined by that of Spain, the Spanish government being compelled by France to resume hostilities with England. The naval operations of this year, however, were not of great importance. In October captain Moore destroyed four Spanish frigates and captured several Spanish vessels with merchandise on board of great value; and, earlier in the year, captain Dance encountered a French fleet

measures did he pass in this session? What was the total amount of supplies granted? By what means did Napoleon become emperor of the French? What was his chief aim this year in respect to England? What were the naval operations of this year?



of superior force off the straits of Malacca, and, after a sharp action, compelled the enemy to retire with all the sail they could set. Dance was convoying a British homeward-bound fleet from Canton, which he brought safely to England, where, on his arrival, he was knighted by the king, and his crew rewarded by the East India Company. In the autumn a catamaran flotilla, under lord Keith, was despatched to Boulogne to destroy the French flotilla in that harbour. This expedition, however, signally failed, and by its failure the admiralty won for themselves the appellation of "The Catamaran Admiralty." Its result served Napoleon a pretext for disseminating the most bitter invectives against the English throughout the continent.

605. *Coalition between Pitt and Addington—Measures in parliament—Napoleon crowned king of Italy—His conquests in Bavaria—The battle of Trafalgar, 1805.*—At the close of the last year Pitt found that his ministerial condition was one of great difficulty. Under these circumstances he was compelled to make peace with Addington, who had carried with him a considerable force to the united opposition. Addington was raised to the peerage as viscount Sidmouth, and was brought into the cabinet as president of the council. Parliament re-assembled on the 15th of January, when the king announced that France was still preparing for the invasion of England, and that Spain, under French control, had declared war against this country. The consequence of this announcement was, that a considerable addition was made to the war taxes, the income-tax being raised to six and a quarter per cent. and the salt duty doubled. A warm discussion took place on the rupture with Spain, opposition asserting that it arose from the attack made on her frigates by captain Moore, but it was plain to all the world that Spain had intended to declare war as soon as the treasure ships captured by the British arrived at Cadiz. In this session Pitt was reminded that he had not redeemed his promise of making concessions to the Roman Catholics. In his reply he stated that on a future occasion he should have an opportunity of explaining why he had let their claims remain unsatisfied, and he intended bringing the question before the house whenever a favourable moment should arrive. That moment did not arrive this session, and before the next was two days old Pitt was dead.

His last orations in parliament were uttered in defence

604. What expedition did lord Keith undertake, and what was its result?

605. How was Pitt's ministry strengthened in 1805? What measures were adopted in parliament, and what discussions took place? How



of lord Melville, who was charged with illegally retaining balances of the public money while acting as treasurer of the navy. Whitbread moved Melville's impeachment for high crimes and misdemeanours, and, notwithstanding Pitt's eloquent defence of the noble viscount, his motion was carried. Here, however, the proceedings were stopped for the present. Parliament was prorogued on the 12th of July. In the meantime Napoleon had been making great progress in his plans of conquest and ambition. In May he had placed the iron crown of Charlemagne upon his head in Milan, and appointed Eugene Beauharnois, his stepson, viceroy. By a stroke of his pen he also annulled the constitution of the Ligurian republic and incorporated Genoa with the French empire. By this last act he asserted that he had only one end in view—that of obtaining 15,000 seamen for the purpose of venturing a great naval struggle in which, if he proved victorious, he should then invade England. But it is evident that this was not his principal object. He must have known that at this time there was a coalition forming against him, which was one of considerable danger to his power and his throne, against which it was his interest to provide. His ambition seemed so unbounded that a third coalition *was* this year formed against him of which England was the centre. Sweden, Russia, and Austria entered into a league against him with England, and though Prussia stood neutral, she secretly approved of the coalition. It was against Austria that Napoleon turned his arms in this campaign. Certified of the nature and extent of the coalition, he hastened to secure Bavaria, by a promise of a large aggrandisement of territory. To prevent this the Austrians occupied Munich. On discovering this Napoleon announced that the “Army of England” was to become the “Army of Germany.” Five great columns of troops under marshals Soult, Davoust, Ney, Lannes, and Murat marched from Boulogne into that country, and in the month of September Napoleon took the command of the whole in person. A great victory was gained by him over the Austrians under general Mack at Ulm: 60,000 prisoners and Mack himself, with all his war material, were captured at one fell swoop. This victory was followed by another at Austerlitz over the Russians and Austrians, under the command of their respective emperors. All Germany now lay at the conqueror's feet, and the emperor Francis was compelled to purchase peace by the cession of a large portion

was Napoleon employed this year in Italy? What new coalition was formed against him? What effect had this on Napoleon's operations? What victories did he gain in Germany? What were the results of



of his territories, and by ratifying to Napoleon all the countries usurped by him before the war. These conquests were followed by the aggrandisement of the house of Napoleon. Eugene Beauharnois was married to the king of Bavaria's daughter, and his cousin was given in marriage to the son and heir of the grand duke of Baden. But though thus successful on the continent, the power of Napoleon on the sea was this year broken. In 1803 Nelson had been appointed to the command of the Mediterranean fleet, and he set sail with a full determination to strike a blow against the enemy from which it would be difficult to recover. He sought the enemy everywhere, but he was long disappointed in his search. Fear had made the French and Spanish cautious; but at length the day which Nelson had long looked for arrived. On the 19th of October the *Mars* signalled that the enemy were coming out of the port of Cadiz, and another signal announced that their fleet was at sea. On the next morning the combined fleets, consisting of thirty-three sail-of-the-line and seven frigates, were seen a-head in line of battle. The British admiral had with him only twenty-seven sail-of-the-line and four frigates, but with this force he resolved to attack the enemy on the next day. He was certain of victory, but he had a strange presentiment that he should fall in the battle. Calling colonel Blackwood to him on board the *Victory* the last words he uttered to him were, "God bless you, Blackwood: I shall never see you more." Yet with this prospect before him he was calm and serene, giving his orders with fatal precision and consummate wisdom. Having made his arrangements the hero of the Nile gave his last signal, "England expects every man to do his duty!" on which up rose three deafening cheers from every ship in the fleet. "Now," said Nelson, "I can do no more: we must trust to the Great Disposer of all events and to the justice of our cause. I thank God for this grand opportunity of doing my duty." As he neared the enemy Nelson put on the coat which he had usually worn for weeks, and on which the Order of the Bath was embroidered. The captain of the *Victory*, Hardy, suggested that this might become a mark for the enemy: to which he replied, "I know it; but as in honour I have gained my orders, so in honour I will die with them." The battle commenced about noon, and soon raged with unmitigated fury. In the midst of the battle the *Victory* engaged the *Santissima*, *Trinidad*, and the *Redoubtable*. While thus engaged the

these victories? How was his family now aggrandized? What great naval victory was gained by Nelson? Can you relate the particulars



*Redoubtable* took fire, and the flames soon spread to the *Victory*. The English sailors put out their own fire, and threw buckets of water into the *Redoubtable* to help the French to extinguish theirs. It was in the midst of this terrific scene that Nelson fell: a rifle or musket-ball from the mizen-top of the *Redoubtable* passed through him, and supported by his weeping officers he was carried down into the cockpit, where it was soon discovered that his wound was mortal. In the meantime the battle raged with redoubled fury. Every now and then the shouts of the crew of the *Victory* announced that some ship of the enemy had struck: on hearing which, joy sparkled in the eyes of the dying Nelson. At length the joyful news was carried down to him that he had obtained a complete victory: that fifteen of the enemy's ships were captured. "That's well," replied Nelson; "but I bargained for twenty:" then, in a louder tone, he exclaimed, "Anchor, Hardy, anchor!" Soon after this the gallant hero's spirit fled: his last words, thrice repeated, being, "Thank God, I have done my duty!" The command now devolved on admiral Collingwood, and who bravely followed up the victory. At the close of the action the number of the ships captured was nineteen, among which were those of the French and Spanish admirals; and the total number of prisoners taken amounted to nearly 12,000 men. Thus ended the greatest naval victory recorded in history: a victory by which England was rescued from all fear of invasion, and left sole mistress of the sea, and by which the marine force of Napoleon might be said to be annihilated. The joy which it caused in England was only damped by the consideration that posthumous honours alone could be awarded to the hero who had been instrumental in gaining the victory. A public funeral, and a public monument in St. Paul's, were decreed to him; and monuments were voted to him in most of our principal cities. Nor did the gratitude of the nation stop at this point of time: in our own days, deeply impressed with the importance of the victory gained at Trafalgar, a noble monument has been erected to his memory in Trafalgar Square—a monument which will recall to memory in ages to come the name and high achievement of this great British naval warrior!

606. *Death of Pitt—The Grenville Administration—Negotiations for Peace—Measures in Parliament—The Slave*

of the battle of Trafalgar? What was the result of this battle to Nelson himself? What honours were paid by the king and the nation to his memory?



*Trade question, 1806.*—At the close of the last session it had become evident that the burden of office had become too great for Pitt's strength, and that he would never arrive at the allotted age of man. When parliament reassembled he was lying in a state of debility and exhaustion at Putney, and two days after he expired, in the forty-seventh year of his age. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, and, as he died poor, a sum not exceeding 40,000*l.* was voted for the payment of his creditors. The death of Pitt was virtually a dissolution of his administration, and a new ministry was formed under Lord Grenville, Fox taking the post of secretary of state for foreign affairs. As Fox had, from the very commencement of the war with France, declaimed loudly against it, it was thought that he had undertaken the foreign department for the express purpose of bringing about a peace. At this time France manifestly desired peace, and but a short time elapsed when government contrived to bring about a negotiation. But Fox soon discovered that peace was unattainable. The demands made by Napoleon were so exorbitant and prejudicial to the interests and honour of England, that negotiations were broken off, and all the effect they had was to confirm the resolution of the governments, both of France and England, to continue the war till one or the other conquered. In order to carry it on with vigour, the supplies voted for the year were estimated at 62,187,465*l.*, and new taxes were voted, and the income-tax again augmented to raise that sum. A bill was also passed for the training of 200,000 soldiers out of those that were liable to be drawn for the militia; and an increase of pay was voted to sergeants, corporals, and privates of the line. In this session Whitbread prosecuted his impeachment of Lord Melville for malappropriation of the public money, but after a trial of sixteen days before the bar of the house of lords, he was acquitted of every charge. The glory of this session and of this ministry, which is known in history by the name of "All the Talents," was a blow struck at the slave trade. It had been in vain that Wilberforce had, session after session, with all the force of eloquence, pleaded its abolition; every motion made by him was emphatically negatived. This year, however, the attorney-general was enabled to carry a bill prohibiting, under a strict penalty, the exportation of slaves

606. When and where did Pitt die? How did parliament honour his memory? By whom was he succeeded in the ministry? What post did Fox fill? What success attended his negotiations for peace? What supplies were granted, and what military measure adopted? What was the result of the impeachment of lord Melville? What



from the British colonies after the 1st of January, 1807; and a proposition, moved by Fox in the commons, and Grenville in the lords, was carried, to the effect, that measures should be taken for putting an end to the slave trade, in such a manner and at such a time as might be deemed advisable. Wilberforce was so delighted at this success of his labours, that he expressed a hope that, during next year, he and his coadjutors in this noble work would witness the termination of all their toils and anxieties. It became an established fact at this time, that the temper of the public mind had become completely changed on this philanthropic question; that while the few still defended the traffic in the blood, and bones, and sinews of man, the many were prepared to wipe out its foul stain from the annals of England.

607. *Death of Fox—Naval successes—Disputes with America—War between France and Prussia.*—The session of this year was a harassing one to Fox. Bound by the chains of party, Canning assailed ministers on every measure brought forward by his bitter sarcasms; while they were equally harassed by Perceval's legal knowledge and lord Castlereagh's prolixity. This active opposition told with great effect on the constitution of Fox, and he did not long survive after the session was closed: he died in September, and was buried by the side of his great rival, Pitt, in Westminster Abbey. His death involved some changes in the ministry, but Grenville still remained prime minister. During this year, the successes of the British fleet greatly encouraged the nation to persevere in the struggle. Three French squadrons were defeated by the British, and several ships of the line and frigates were either captured, or destroyed. An expedition, under the command of Sir David Baird, added the Cape of Good Hope to the English possessions; and Buenos Ayres was taken from the Spaniards, but was afterwards re-captured. At this time the Americans complained of impressing British seamen on board their merchant vessels; of the violation of their rights as neutrals, in seizing and condemning their merchantmen engaged in lawful commerce; and of the infringement of their maritime jurisdiction on their own coasts. Hot disputes arose between the two governments, but by wise conciliatory measures on the part of England, a particular measure distinguished this session? How was the public mind now affected towards the slave trade?

607. What causes led to the death of Fox? By whose side was he buried, and where? What naval victories were this year gained by the British? By whom was the Cape of Good Hope captured? What were the causes of a dispute with America, and by what means was



threatened war was prevented. This year, Prussia declared war against France, but the Prussian army was twice defeated by Napoleon, at Jena and Auerstadt, by which the power of Prussia was overthrown: more than 50,000 men were slain. These battles were followed by the capture of Erfurt, and other places; and by victories over Prince Hohenlohe at Prenzlau, and over the reserve army of Blücher towards the Lower Elbe. All the country, from the Rhine to the other side of the Oder, with a population of nine millions, fell into the hands of the victor. North Germany groaned under the scourge of the victor, and South Germany paid him homage, and gold. Wherever he turned his arms on the continent, Napoleon was this year victorious. An army under Massena, and Joseph Buonaparte, drove the king of Naples from his throne, and Joseph was appointed by Napoleon hereditary king of Naples and Sicily. About the same time, Louis Napoleon was proclaimed king of Holland: Eugene Beauharnois was appointed to the throne of Italy, which kingdom was increased by the incorporation of the state of Venice; and Cleves, with Berg, was given to Murat, the husband of Napoleon's sister. By these means Napoleon hoped to establish his throne on a sure foundation.

608. *Parliamentary Measures—Dismissal of Ministers—The new Cabinet—Dissolution of Parliament, 1807.*—This year Wilberforce witnessed the fulfilment of his hopes. A bill was passed by triumphant majorities for the total abolition of the slave trade. The darkest spot in the English annals was, therefore, at length wiped out, and a noble example was thereby set to the nations around who still trafficked in human flesh. The Catholic question was made a subject of paramount importance with the present administration. Under the sanction of his majesty, a bill was brought in for allowing promotion in the army and navy to Roman Catholics, and also to other dissenters from the Protestant establishment. The bill was read a first time, but before its second reading the king's sentiments underwent a material change on the subject: his coronation oath, he said, would not allow him to give his royal assent to such a measure. It was in vain that ministers sought to remove the king's scruples: the more they argued the firmer he became. The subject, indeed, caused a breach between his majesty and his ministers, which admitted of no reparation. It led that dispute settled? What were the results of a war which took place this year between France and Prussia? How did Napoleon this year aggrandize his family?

608. What important bill was passed this session? On what subject



to their dismissal: a mandate was sent to command Grenville and his colleagues to appear at the palace to deliver up their seals, and "all the talents" ministry was thus abruptly dissolved. A new cabinet was formed under the duke of Portland, in which Canning took office as secretary for foreign affairs. The new appointments gave rise to a great trial of strength in parliament, and though ministers gained majorities, they advised his majesty to dissolve parliament, hoping that in a general election they might obtain more firm support. Great efforts were made by both parties at the general election; but so potent were the cries raised of "No popery," "The Church is in danger," &c., both from the pulpit, by the press, and in society at large, that of all the members of the late cabinet one only resumed his seat in the commons. Bribery, also, did its work on this occasion; boroughs were sold at a price beyond all precedent; even an offer of £10,000 was refused for one as beneath acceptance. The result of the election was soon made manifest in parliament; in all their measures this session, which were not of much importance, ministers had large majorities, and a fair prospect was opened to them of being firmly established in office. Parliament was prorogued in August, when the king's speech breathed hope and cheerfulness.

609. *Campaign of Napoleon—The peace of Tilsit—Expedition to Copenhagen and Egypt—Hostilities against Turkey—War with Russia, &c.*—On the defeat of his armies, the king of Prussia sought refuge with his Russian ally; and Napoleon this year advanced in the hope of crushing him. Frederick William was at Memel, and his Russian allies at Prussian Eylau. A battle took place at Eylau, in which a fearful slaughter took place on both sides, and neither could claim the victory. As, however, the Russians had no prospect of succours, and as Napoleon expected fresh troops, the Russian general retreated. The two armies, however, again met at Friedland, and Napoleon was again victorious: the Russians were utterly defeated. Those who escaped the slaughter retreated beyond the Niemen, but the French soon reached that river in the pursuit. Their cause was hopeless: the Russians demanded an armistice. This was conceded, and on the next day the two emperors met at Tilsit, where a

did the king and "all the talents" ministry disagree? To what did this lead? Who was at the head of the new ministry, and what post did Canning fill? To what contests did the new appointments lead? What was the result of this trial of strength? What was the result of the new election?

609. What great victories were this year gained by Napoleon in



peace was concluded between them, the conditions of which were various. Among the most important to Napoleon were, that the thrones he had erected were acknowledged by both Russia and Prussia, and the confederation of the Rhine, and every other league which he had formed recognised. Future spoliation and wrong were even sanctioned by the defeated potentates, for they recognised a throne which Napoleon was about to erect for his brother Jerome—the throne of Westphalia. The treaty of Tilsit, indeed, was nothing less than a league to enchain the world, for a scheme was concocted for the future dismemberment of the Porte; plots were devised against Spain and Sweden, and a part of Prussian Poland was given to Russia. It was manifest from the terms of this treaty, that Napoleon intended whenever it suited his purpose to occupy Denmark. It was determined, therefore, by the British cabinet, that the confederated emperors should be anticipated. An armament of 20,000 men, under lord Cathcart, accompanied by a powerful fleet under lord Gambier, was sent to Denmark. Before the expedition commenced operations, a British envoy required that the Danish fleet should be delivered into the hands of the British admiral, under a solemn agreement that it should be restored whenever peace should be concluded between France and England. A direct refusal was given to this demand, and Copenhagen was closely invested on the land side, while the fleet formed a blockade by the sea. Copenhagen was bombarded for four days, when a flag of truce was sent to the British commanders, after which a capitulation was settled, and the British army took possession of the citadel. Every ship in the harbour, and every article of naval equipment in the arsenal, were taken possession of and brought to England. Soon after, the crown prince of Denmark, having a prospect of support from Russia and France, declared war against England, which was followed by an order of reprisals against the ships, goods, and subjects of Denmark. This expedition, however, was the only one planned by the “all the talents ministry,” which was crowned with success. Another against Egypt, which was sent in the hope of subduing that country, and thus opposing a barrier to a design contemplated by Napoleon against our oriental possessions, signally failed: the British troops penetrated to Rosetta, but were there defeated, and compelled to fight their way back to Alexandria. Equally fruitless was another expedition to Turkey, where Germany? What resulted from these victories? Of what distinctive character was the treaty of Tilsit? By whom was Copenhagen bombarded, and for what reason? Can you state the results of that bom-



French influence prevailed, and where the "all the talents ministry" designed forming a barrier against the encroachments of the newly-confederated emperors. Sir John Duckworth, who commanded this expedition, had orders, if certain conditions were not complied with, to force the passage of the Dardanelles and to anchor before Constantinople and bombard that city. It was in vain that a British envoy endeavoured to arouse the Porte to a sense of danger. The Porte considered that there was no danger from the rulers of France and Russia, and least of all, could it imagine that England would carry out her threats. It was not written in the book of destiny, said the Reis Effendi, that the English should attack Turkey, and if they did, he conceived that there were guns enough to sink all their ships should they arrive in the Bosphorus. The demands, therefore, made by the English were unheeded, and Sir John Duckworth commenced operations. The passage of the Dardanelles was effected, and the British fleet appeared before Constantinople. Preparations were made for its bombardment, but the wind and current prevented the fleet from taking up such a position as would enable it to bombard the city with success. The British commander was, indeed, compelled to re-pass the Dardanelles, and in doing so, his ships sustained much damage from the fire of the castles in its vicinity. The only result of this expedition, therefore, was to add a new enemy to the list already in battle array against England. Another enemy still more formidable than the Porte was also added to that list. While negotiating with Napoleon the emperor Alexander had expressed bitter resentment against England; his chief reason for which, at that time, being that the British ministry had departed from Pitt's system of subsidies. Shame prevented him from declaring war on that mercenary account, but when he found that England occupied Denmark, a manifesto appeared from his imperial palace, in which England was accused of provoking a war by such an enterprise: an accusation which was followed by a spirited reply on the part of the British government, by the British ambassador's leaving St. Petersburg, and by a grant of letters of marque and reprisals against Russian vessels. The emperor of Russia now declared war against England; asserting that there should be no peace between the two countries until satisfaction should have been given to Denmark. But though thus menaced by France, Russia, and other countries, bardment? What successes attended the expeditions against Egypt and Turkey? For what reasons did the emperor of Russia declare war against England? How did England meet his accusation and menace?



England was destined still to be the avenger of humiliated thrones.

610. *Meeting of Parliament—Rising of the Spanish nation, and of Portugal—Proposals for peace rejected by England—Operations in Spain—Naval affairs—State of the Continent, 1808.*—Although threatened on every hand the British government stood unappalled. The sole object of the war, said his majesty in his speech on the opening of parliament, was to attain a lasting and honourable peace. He added that there never was a more just and national war waged; that the eyes of all Europe and the world were fixed upon the British parliament; that he felt they would display the characteristic spirit of the British nation; and that he was fully persuaded, that under the blessings of providence, Great Britain would ultimately triumph. The war was, indeed, at this time, popular both in the senate and among the people. The expedition to Copenhagen was loudly condemned by some members as a disgrace to the administration from whence it emanated, but Canning, who was the great champion of the ministry, by his eloquence silenced the voice of clamour, and proved to demonstration that the act was one of self-preservation: that if our arms had not secured the Danish fleet, sooner or later Napoleon would have taken possession of it, and turned its thunders against England. No other discussion of importance took place this session, and the ways and means were freely granted, and new taxes for the support of the war voted without opposition. Parliament was prorogued in July, at which time the war had assumed a new phase. By the terms of the treaty which existed between Napoleon and Spain, it was agreed that they should mutually share in the conquests made in Portugal. Napoleon, however, never intended that Spain should profit by these conquests. On the contrary, he almost excluded them from the occupation of Portugal; and even marched troops by different routes into the very heart of Spain itself. The proud hearts of the Spaniards beat high with indignation at this outrage, but notwithstanding, Napoleon, in the face of a general revolt, dethroned Ferdinand, and placed his own brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. But though the royal house of the Bourbons had vanished, the Spanish nation still lived. The national pride revolted against the yoke of the foreigner; and on the very day that Napoleon declared his brother king, the Junta of Seville

610. What were the sentiments of the British parliament and the people concerning the war at this period? What great events now happened in Spain and Portugal? By whom were the French defeated



proclaimed war against the oppressor. The French were driven from Saragossa, and were compelled to lay down their arms at Bayleu, to the number of 26,000 men. So furious was the storm of war which Napoleon had thus called up, that king Joseph was compelled to quit Madrid one week after his entry therein. The flame of patriotism kindled in Spain soon spread into Portugal. The Portuguese rose in arms and were quickly aided by the English. It was at this time that the great antagonist of Napoleon appeared on the theatre of war: a man who was destined to be the chief instrument of his utter and final overthrow; this was Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards created duke of Wellington. At the head of the British forces he defeated the French at Rohia, and Vimiera, the result of which last victory was the capitulation of Cintra, in virtue of which the French army was conveyed to France in British vessels, and all Portugal was left in the power of the British. In the meantime, Napoleon had crossed the Pyrenees into Spain at the head of a large army, and after obtaining victories at Burgos, Epinosa, and Tudela, once more placed his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. But the population rose on every hand and vowed to drive him from their land. A British army, under General Moore, marched from Portugal to their aid, but when he arrived the Spaniards had been several times defeated, and he was obliged to retreat. Soult was commissioned to follow the British, and he overtook them at Corunna. A battle was fought, in which Soult was defeated; but Sir John Moore, by whose bravery the victory was gained, fell mortally wounded. The British forces now quitted Spain under the command of Sir John Hope; leaving the Spaniards to struggle with the French by their own prowess. Their warfare was chiefly pursued by guerilla bands, who suddenly appeared against their enemies, and, having cut off some of them, disappeared with equal rapidity. These were the chief events of the war in this campaign. No naval action was fought; but a Russian fleet of nine ships of the line surrendered to the British in the Tagus under a stipulation that it should be held by England with all its stores till six months after the conclusion of peace. Napoleon had collected a squadron of considerable magnitude at Toulon, to aid him in his designs on Sicily, but that port was closely blockaded by a British fleet under lord Collingwood, and the

in Portugal? What victory was gained by the British in Spain? Who fell at the battle of Corunna? How did the Spaniards carry on the war with Napoleon? What naval affairs took place this year? In what manner did the emperors of France and Russia pursue their system



French kept close under their guns. On the continent, the Russian Autocrat, and the Emperor Napoleon, pursued that system of agrandisement on which they had agreed at Tilsit: Alexander added Finland to his empire; and Napoleon consolidated the kingdom of Italy which he had given to Eugene Beauharnois, by incorporating with it several legations. To complete his domestic policy the French Emperor instituted an hereditary nobility; and princes, dukes, counts, barons, and knights, were created on every hand, in order to ennoble his mushroom empire.

611. *Proceedings in Parliament—The war in Spain—Campaign of Napoleon in Austria—British expedition against Naples and Antwerp, 1809.*—In the session of 1809, parliament provided for a large augmentation of the military force, and additions were likewise made to the navy. The total amount of supplies for the year was £53,862,000, and among the ways and means was a loan of £11,000,000. This session was noted for an investigation into a charge made against the duke of York for having, through the medium of one Mary Ann Clark, made his military patronage a medium of infamous traffic. The charge was not clearly substantiated, but the duke, convinced that he was not considered wholly innocent, took the first opportunity of resigning his official situation as commander-in-chief of the forces. In this session, also, by means of committees, several sources of parliamentary corruption were brought to light, and means were adopted to remedy the evils. Sir Francis Burdett made a motion for a sweeping parliamentary reform, but as the nation was engaged in a contest for its national existence, it was not deemed wise to tamper with the machinery of government. That contest was growing hotter and hotter. In Spain, the French, after a long and bloody seige, captured Saragossa. After the capture of this city, the conquest of Spain seemed an easy task, for though the Spaniards fought like lions behind stone walls, they acted like women in the field. They were not, however, now left to fight the French, single-handed. A British fleet under lord Collingwood, defended their coasts from the French arms, and sir Arthur Wellesley having driven the French from Portugal, advanced into Spain and joined his forces to an army under the Spanish general, Cuesta. A great of aggrandizement? By what act did Napoleon seek to ennoble his empire?

611. What was the amount of the supplies granted in 1809? What noted investigations occurred this session, and what were their results? By whom was Saragossa captured? By whom were the French defeated, and where? How was Sir Arthur Wellesley rewarded? Why did



victory was obtained by him at Talavera, over a superior French force under marshal Victor, for which he received the thanks of parliament, and was created Viscount Wellington of Talavera. In this great battle, the French lost 7000 in killed and wounded, and the British scarcely more than half that number. As, however, the French had still two large armies in Spain, and as the Spaniards were no great assistance in his operations, Wellington resolved to retire into Portugal, which country he re-entered in September. The Spanish Junta loudly exclaimed against him for deserting their cause, but it was only by drawing on his magazines in Portugal, which were chiefly filled by England, that he could preserve his troops from starvation, and it was impossible for him to co-operate with undisciplined Spanish troops, and proud, obstinate, and incapable Spanish generals. In the meantime Napoleon was carrying on war with Austria. Three successive victories opened the gates of Vienna to him, and he entered that city about a month after the Austrians commenced hostilities. But though defeated, the Austrians were not yet wholly conquered. The archduke Charles, who commanded their forces, suddenly reappeared before Vienna, and a battle was fought in its vicinity, in which the French under Napoleon, were defeated with great slaughter: they retreated to the island of Labau, leaving 11,000 dead on the field, while 36,000 were wounded. An armistice of six weeks followed this battle, during which time Napoleon made great preparations for a renewal of the struggle. He seemed resolved to crush the house of Austria, and after the armistice had expired, a terrible battle was fought at Wagram, which lasted two whole days, and which laid that house prostrate at Napoleon's feet. To save himself from destruction, the emperor of Austria entered into a treaty with Napoleon; one of the leading stipulations of which was, that the French emperor should marry an Austrian princess; an union which took place early in the next year, Napoleon in the interval having obtained a divorce from his faithful wife, Josephine, through whose influence he had first procured promotion in the ranks of the revolutionary army of France. In order to create a diversion in favour of the Austrian emperor, during this year the British cabinet prepared two expeditions: the one against Naples, and the other against Antwerp for the purpose of destroying Napoleon's maritime preparations in the he retire into Portugal? What military operations were carried on this year by Napoleon? By whom was a great victory obtained over the French? By what great battle was the house of Austria crushed? By what means was the Emperor of Austria saved from destruction?



Scheldt. Both these enterprizes, however, failed, from being too long in preparation. When the expeditions arrived at their destination, the French had assembled in such force that it was found impossible for them to carry out their designs. Flushing was captured by the expedition sent against Antwerp, but about a month after the treaty of Vienna the British troops received orders to destroy its defences and basin and then to re-embark. Anterior to this, three thousand of the British forces occupied the Isle of Walcheren, where they were attacked by an endemic fever which swept off half their numbers, while the greater part of the remainder carried its effects with them to the grave. These expeditions, indeed, were signal failures, and they brought disgrace on the memory of lord Caslereagh, with whom they originated.

612. *Meeting of Parliament—Sir Francis Burdett committed to the Tower, &c.—Campaign in Portugal, &c.—Holland annexed to France—Foreign conquests, &c.*—At the opening of parliament warm debates took place on the ministerial direction of the whole war, and the recent unfortunate expeditions afforded an opportunity for the opposition to descant in strong language on the incompetency of the government. So hot was the wordy contest, that the standing order of the house for the exclusion of strangers was enforced. But this exclusion of strangers not only failed in keeping the public ignorant of what passed within the walls of St. Stephen's, but led to new troubles and disgraceful scenes. At this time there was in London a debating society called the British Forum, the president and chief orator of which was one Gale Jones. The subject of the exclusion of strangers from the house of commons was a tempting one, and Gale Jones proposed it as a proper subject of discussion in the British Forum. Accordingly it was discussed with all due gravity, by Jones and his brother orators, but president Jones was so violent in his language, and passed such free censures on the member who had proposed the exclusion of strangers, that he was brought to the bar of the commons, and from thence sent to Newgate. Here the matter might have ended, but Sir Francis Burdett loudly condemned such a proceeding, and moved that Gale Jones be forthwith discharged from his prison house. His motion was lost, and Sir Francis published his speech in Cob-

What expeditions were undertaken by the British, and what were their results? On whose memory did their failure bring disgrace, and why?

612. What question chiefly occupied the attention of Parliament this session? Who was Gale Jones? Why was he committed to Newgate? For what offence was Sir Francis Burdett committed to the Tower?



bett's Register in an enlarged form, and with stronger language than he had used orally. In this paper Sir Francis denied the right of the house to commit for privilege, but the house determined to assert their privilege, and he was ordered to be committed to the Tower on the speaker's warrant for a libel on the commons. This warrant was issued, but Sir Francis shut himself up in his mansion, barring his doors and windows, and declared that he would yield only to force. He was conveyed to the Tower, by the aid of the police and a detachment of troops, but his escort was so grossly insulted by a mob, that the soldiers were compelled to fire in self-defence, and two men were killed, while several more were wounded. Sir Francis was kept in the Tower to the end of the session, when he was released. He subsequently entered actions against the speaker and others for illegal imprisonment, but the judges ruled that he had been lawfully committed, and thus the privilege of the house was confirmed, and its claims recognised by the courts of law. Sir Francis, however, was considered by the public at large to be a martyr of liberty, and Gale Jones, who was also liberated, shared in his popularity. This question of privilege was the only one of importance taken into consideration this session, and that chiefly tended to bring the house into contempt. The session closed on the 21st of June: the royal speech affirming that Portugal was exerting herself with vigour and energy, and that in Spain, though the French were victorious, the spirit of resistance was still unsubdued. At this period Napoleon had sent immense reinforcements into the Peninsula, under the command of Marshal Massena: a general celebrated for his success in battle, and who confidently calculated upon planting the imperial eagles on the walls of Lisbon, and driving the British to their ships. He boasted that he would drive Wellington out of Portugal in three months, and his first operations seemed to promise that consummation. Wellington retreated before his numerous hosts towards Lisbon, but his retreat was only made to ensure final victory. With admirable foresight, conscious of his inferior numbers, Wellington had matured a plan of defence which completely baffled the designs of Massena. He had fortified a range of hills in front of Lisbon, at the distance of twenty-four miles, and after giving the French marshal a severe check on the ridge of Busaco, his troops retired within the impregnable lines of Torres Vedras.

In what light were Sir Francis and Gale Jones looked upon by the public? What military operations occurred this year in Portugal? What measures were adopted by Napoleon in Spain? How was



Massena's heart was smitten with despair at the sight of the scarp'd rocks before him, and the cannon on their eminences, and it was in vain that he endeavoured to discover a spot, through which he might force a passage. After losing, indeed, about 15,000 men before the lines of Torres Vedras, by the sword, by sickness and privation, he withdrew his army from the low wet grounds in their front, and placed it in cantonments for the winter. In Spain during this year the French ruled dominant. Napoleon re-organised the civil and military administration of the kingdom, and suppressed all the orders of monks and mendicants, confiscating the property of the cloisters, and appropriating it to state objects. Napoleon himself spent this year with his new bride Maria Louisa, in Paris, where "all went merry as a marriage bell." This marriage, however, was a capital error in his political career. It was looked upon by the nation at large with dislike; it being deemed monstrous that a son of the revolution should ally himself with a branch of the "corporation of tyrants." His despotic decrees of this year also lowered him in the estimation of both France and Europe. All Europe, however, submitted to his yoke in silence, and England alone continued the war by sea and land. In the lists of British conquests this year, was that of Santa Maura added to the other Ionian islands, rescued from the French dominion; the Dutch settlement of Amboyna with its dependent islands; the Dutch settlement of Banda, the principal of the spice islands; and the islands of Bourbon and Mauritius. In the West Indies, Guadaloupe, the east colonial possession of France, was captured by a British naval and military force, under Admiral Sir Alexander Cochrane, and Lieutenant-General Beckwith. The British arms were also successful nearer home. A French force, under Murat, invaded Sicily, but nine hundred of his troops were captured by General Campbell, and the rest were driven to their vessels. The island of Anholt, in the Baltic, was likewise successfully defended by Captain Maurice with three hundred men, against a Danish force of eight times the number. These successes, combined with the noble stand Wellington had made against the superior forces of Massena, greatly raised the hopes of the nation that there would soon be witnessed a successful termination of this deadly struggle. The day of retribution was, indeed fast approaching: a day, when God and man united to punish France and its haughty ruler for all the desolations

Napoleon occupied this year? In what light was his marriage with an Austrian Princess looked upon in France? What conquests were made this year by the British arms? What effect had they on the



they had committed in blood-stained Europe. At the close of this year Russia was beginning to awake as from a dream, and to "arise against the world Empire, which approached nearer and nearer her frontier."

613. *Illness of the King—The Regency—Parliament opened by the Regent—Portugal and Spain—Naval affairs, &c.—The Cabinets of Europe, &c.*, 1811.—In the autumn of last year, the king was again afflicted with mental malady. This awful visitation was attributed by his physicians to the shock he had recently sustained, by the death of his favourite daughter, the princess Amelia. He had been for some time afflicted by blindness; but when, on visiting the princess a few days before her death, she put a ring on his finger, he knew its import,—that it was to be worn in memory of one whom he so tenderly loved. The shock was too much for his nerves: his reason gave way, and to the day of his death in 1820, no glimmering of it returned. In consequence of this event, the care of the king's person was committed to the queen, assisted by a council, and the defect in the executive government was supplied by the appointment of the Prince of Wales as regent. Though the Prince had been averse to the king's ministers and their policy, he retained them in office, by which he gave offence to the old whig party, to whom he had hitherto been attached. The regent opened parliament by commission in February, and his speech breathed a warlike spirit, to which the members of both houses warmly responded: some deprecated war in the debate which followed the addresses, but they were carried both in the lords and commons, without a division. No measures of importance were passed this session: war being the all-engrossing topic, both in parliament, and throughout the nation. Early in this year, the English and French armies in Portugal remained in their respective positions. In March, Wellington's army was reinforced by seven thousand men, and Massena retreated to the frontiers of Spain, followed by the English. During his pursuit of the French army, Wellington was mortified by the intelligence that Soult had captured Badajoz, and that the Spanish garrisons had become prisoners of war. About the same time, however, a French army was defeated by General Graham, at Barossa in Spain, leaving behind them on their retreat, three thousand,

British nation? What great power now showed signs of resistance to France, and what prospect now dawned upon Europe?

613. By what malady was the king now visited, and what was the exciting cause? Who was made regent, and how did he act towards the ministry? What was the character of the regent's first speech in



killed and prisoners, and some of their cannon. In May, also, the French under Soult, were defeated by Marshal Beresford, in a battle fought at Elvas, in which a fearful slaughter took place on both sides. In this battle a greater loss was sustained by the British, than in any that had been fought in the Peninsula, but the steadiness and gallantry of the troops obtained the highest commendations, both from their commander and the two houses of parliament. After the battle of Elvas, Wellington joined Beresford and besieged Badajoz, but two different attacks upon it failed, and the siege was given up. Subsequently, Wellington formed the blockade of Ciudad Rodrigo, but this city was relieved by a French force under Marmont, and the English retired. In October, General Hill with a division of the allied army, routed a French column, and captured 1400 prisoners, with all Girard's artillery, baggage, and stores. By sea the English had not at this period any adequate antagonist to encounter, but during the year, there were several severe frigate fights and in-shore operations, in all of which our arms were successful. The vessels of the enemy, indeed, could nowhere move in safety, for our fleets and squadrons were scattered about in all the four quarters of the globe in quest of them. During the year, a formidable expedition was fitted out by Lord Minto, governor-general of India, against the Dutch settlements in the island of Java. The whole of the Dutch army was either killed, captured, or dispersed, and the entire island surrendered to the British arms. In France, according to outward appearance, everything seemed to be still in Napoleon's favour. His cup of prosperity appeared to be full, for the Empress Maria Louisa gave birth to a son, to whom was given the titles of Napoleon Francis Charles Joseph, Prince of the French Empire, and King of Rome! Congratulatory addresses were poured in from all the departments and cities of France, as well as from Belgium, Holland, the Hanse towns, the confederated states of the Rhine, and Italy. Accompanied by the empress, Napoleon visited Ostend, Antwerp, and Amsterdam, but on his return to Paris events bid fair to run more roughly with him than they had hitherto done. All the cabinets of Europe were at this time anxious to break their fetters, and a war with Russia had become inevitable. Thus menaced, Napoleon called out fresh conscripts, and his preparations for war were

parliament, and what response was made to it? What war operations occurred this year in Spain? How was the British navy employed this year? What island was captured from the Dutch? What attitude had the cabinets of Europe now assumed towards Napoleon?



on such a gigantic scale, that at the close of this year, it was evident he meditated an unprecedented campaign.

614. *Affairs in Parliament—Perceval assassinated—Operations in Spain—Napoleon's campaign in Russia—War with America, 1812*—At the opening of the session of 1812. the war and foreign policy of government was warmly denounced in both houses. At this period, indeed, the cabinet was not only weak, but distracted, and several changes took place: the most important of which was that lord Castlereagh took the post of the marquess Wellesley as secretary for foreign affairs. The whigs had anticipated a return to power under the regent's rule, but they soon discovered that he adhered to his father's line of policy, and at this time they began to revile him whom they had so long flattered and applauded. The appointment of lord Castlereagh gave them high offence, and rumours were spread abroad by them concerning it, which if true, were discreditable to several persons of influence and power. The attacks made upon government were of the most violent nature, but they failed to bring about any essential change either in men or measures. But what the whigs in opposition failed to do was accomplished by the hand of an assassin. In May, as the chancellor of the exchequer, Perceval, was entering the lobby of the house of commons, he was shot through the heart by a man named Bellingham, and after uttering a slight exclamation, and staggering a few paces, he expired. It was apprehended at first that there might be a conspiracy, but it was a matter of personal feeling that induced the fatal deed. Bellingham had been a merchant, and had met with serious losses which he attributed to violence and injustice, and because Mr. Perceval refused to listen to his application for compensation he resolved to sacrifice his life. At the death of Perceval a new cabinet was formed under the auspices of lord Liverpool as first commissioner of the treasury: Mr. Vansittart was chancellor of the exchequer. The budget of the new chancellor was a formidable one: being 55,350,648*l.* for Great Britain, and 7,025,700*l.* for Ireland. To provide ways and means, recourse was had to a loan of 15,650,000*l.*, and to an increase of several duties already in existence. Parliament was prorogued in July, and in the autumn a proclamation announced its dissolution. In the meantime great events in the world's history had

614. In what position was the British Cabinet at the opening of the session this year? What changes took place? By whom was Perceval assassinated, and why? Who succeeded him in the ministry? What supplies were granted in this session? What victories were gained by Wellington in Spain? Why did he retreat into Portugal? What was



taken place. In Spain, Wellington had captured Ciudad Rodrigo, and had stormed and taken Badajoz. After this, discovering that marshal Marmont at the head of a large army, was advancing into Portugal, he marched against him. A great battle was fought at Salamanca, in which Wellington was victorious. Marmont sustained a signal defeat: his loss in killed and wounded was enormous, and he left seven thousand prisoners, eleven guns, and two eagles, in the hands of the conquerors. In consequence of this victory, King Joseph left Madrid, and Wellington made his solemn entrance into that city. His triumph, however, was short-lived: the combined French armies marched again towards Madrid, and being ill-supported by the Cortes, and having experienced great loss in fruitless storms upon the citadel of Burgos, Wellington retreated towards Portugal, and King Joseph re-entered the capital of Spain. At the exact point of time Wellington was retreating from Spain into Portugal, Napoleon was making a disastrous retreat from Moscow into his own dominions. Thwarted in his ambitious views upon the Ottoman empire, which he had been led to expect from the treaty of Tilsit, Alexander first became cool towards his brother spoliator, and then declared war against him. Great preparations were made on both sides, and Napoleon resolved to humble the Czar in his own dominions. At the head of an army of 800,000 men he crossed the Vistula, and his onward march was a series of triumphs. Everywhere the Russians retreated before him, until he came to the plains of Moscow. Here a fearful battle was fought between the French under Napoleon, and the Russians under Kutusoff. Napoleon was the victor, and Moscow fell into his hands: he took up his residence in the Kremlin, the ancient palace of the Czars. Here, however, his triumphs ended. In his route to Moscow he had found Smolensko in ashes lest it should afford shelter to his troops, and he had scarcely taken his seat in the imperial city when flames were seen casting their lurid glare on every hand. In a brief space of time Moscow was in ruins. Napoleon was compelled to give orders to his troops to return to France. But they had scarcely commenced their retrograde march, when the snow like a violent storm of the Alps, beat around their devoted heads. The fiat of the Almighty had gone forth against the proud conqueror! Famine, frost, and snow, and the never resting lances of the fiery Cossacks overtook his proud army, and when he reached the margin of the Beresina, its huge

the primary cause of the war between Russia and France? What campaign did Napoleon undertake? What was the result of his invasion



proportions were dwindled to a shadow! Out of 800,000 men, only 14,000 arrived on the margin of that river, and not all these reached France. The Russians were at their rear, and to escape their vengeance the French tumbled each other into the stream, or voluntarily threw themselves in, and were drowned. When the Beresina was frozen, it presented one vast heap of human beings. Those who gained the opposite bank were saved, and Napoleon leaving them under the care of Murat, repaired to Paris: stripped of everything, and yet hoping to repair his shattered fortunes. During this year disputes which had long existed between England and America broke out into open war. England on her part had done everything she could to bring these disputes to an amicable adjustment. She had offered to suspend the offensive regulations of which the Americans complained, if the Americans on their part would rescind certain restrictive acts by which they had marked their resentment. The American president, however, was at this time inimical to the interests of England, and devoted to the views and interests of France. War was therefore declared, and the Americans commenced it by the invasion of Canada. They were defeated in two engagements, and were compelled to relinquish the enterprize, but they consoled themselves for these disasters by their successes at sea. Two English frigates were captured by them, and they committed much damage on our naval armaments on the lakes: chiefly from the superiority of the American ships in size, weight of metal, and number of men. Towards the end of the year conciliatory proposals were made by both parties, but the year closed without witnessing a suspension of hostilities. The world looked with surprise at the conduct of the American government, which calling itself free and independent, had thus banded with a military despotism which had not its parallel in the history of the world.

615. *Meeting of the New Parliament, and its measures—The affairs of Spain—The campaign in America, 1813.*—Parliament with the newly-elected house of commons, met in November, 1812, but nothing of importance transpired till it re-assembled in February, 1813. At that time a stormy debate took place on the American war, in which the opposition blamed ministers not only for the negligent manner in which the maritime conflict had been conducted, but also with being the aggressors, and with having provoked an unnecessary and

of Russia? In what new war was England engaged? What were the operations of that war in this year? In what light was the conduct of the American government looked upon by the world?



fatal contest. The house, however, generally accorded them its support, and the debate only marked the strife of party. To support both the continental and American war, supplies were granted to the extent of 72,000,000*l.*: a larger amount than any that had been hitherto voted. The most important question which came before parliament this session, was the renewal of the East India Company's charter: a bill was enacted for the prolongation of the Company's territorial power to April, 1834. It was resolved, also, at this time, that the church establishments of the British territories in India should be placed under the direction of a bishop and three archdeacons, and that missionaries might be licensed for the propagation of the gospel among the natives. The session closed on the 22nd of July, when the Prince Regent expressed satisfaction at the favourable state of affairs on the continent, and regret at the continuance of the war with the United States. A great outcry had been raised against Lord Wellington in England, for having after his victories in Spain, suddenly retreated into Portugal. Wellington, however, satisfied ministers that the step he had taken was a wise one, and they resolved to send him all the assistance in their power. He spent the winter in rendering his army more effective, and the Cortes resolved to aid him in the ensuing campaign with 50,000 troops, which were to be placed entirely under his command. Under his able direction they augured that the Spanish troops would pitch their tents on the banks of the Seine: "not the first time, that the Spanish lions had there trampled on the old fleur-de-lys of France." Wellington, however, did not expect such great things from the Spanish troops, for when he commenced the campaign of this year, although measures had been taken to improve their slothfulness and indiscipline, they were still far from forming an effective body. Trusting, however, to the cool courage of his British forces, in May Wellington again entered Spain, and advanced towards Madrid. A great victory was gained by him over the French at Vittoria: a victory, which was celebrated in England by illuminations and fêtes, and for which the Cortes decreed the conqueror a territorial property, in testimony of the gratitude of the Spanish nation. The defeated French forces were under the command of King Joseph, who fled from the field of battle, and scarcely looked back before he

615. What amount of supplies were granted in 1813? What was the most important question in this session? When did the session close? After his retreat from Portugal, how was Wellington employed in the winter? When did he re-enter Spain? What great victory did he obtain over the French? How did Wellington act after this victory?



reached the walls of Pamplona, in Navarre. Joseph was admitted into its walls, but his forces were denied an entrance, and they continued their flight across the Pyrenees into France. Leaving two divisions—the one to invest Pamplona, and the other to invest San Sebastian, which were both occupied by French garrisons—Wellington advanced with the main body of his army to occupy the passes of the Pyrenees, and early in July his sentinels looked down from the rugged frontier of Spain upon the level and fertile plains of France. In forty-five days he had conducted the allied army from Portugal to the Pyrenees; had driven the French through a country abounding in strong positions; had liberated Spain; and had taken his stand as a conqueror upon the skirts of France! But the campaign was not yet over. Soult was directed to re-equip the defeated troops; to gather formidable reinforcements; to lead his masses against Wellington; to clear the French frontier, and the passes of the Pyrenees; to relieve Pamplona and San Sebastian; and to drive the allied army beyond the Ebro! All this Soult swore he would do, but he found his important task too difficult to accomplish. His forces overpowered the troops stationed in two of the mountain passes on the right of the allied army, and penetrated into the valley of the Pyrenees, but here his successes ended. Wellington, on hearing of Soult's operations, hastened to meet him, and after a week's hard fighting, Soult retreated from the Spanish frontiers into France, with a loss of nearly twenty thousand men. The two fortresses of San Sebastian and Pamplona were now captured, and the French garrisons therein made prisoners. Before the reduction of Pamplona, however, Wellington had led his troops from the heights of the Pyrenees into France, where after driving the French before him like a flock of sheep, as far as Bayonne, he took up his winter quarters. He occupied the country between the Nive and the Adour, and it was in vain that Soult made several attempts to drive him from his position: all his attacks were repulsed with great loss, and the French marshal finally drew off his troops in despair, and retired into his entrenched camp. It was thus that this great campaign ended: a campaign in which the French troops had been taught that their arms were not invincible, and that human fame was not enduring. In

By whom was the campaign renewed? What successes were obtained by Soult? How long did it take Wellington to drive Soult back into France? What fortresses in Spain were now taken from the French? How did Wellington follow up his successes, and where did he winter? What great lessons were the French taught by this campaign? What



the meantime, however, ill success had attended the British arms on the eastern coast of the Peninsula, where two attempts to capture Tarragona signally failed. Convinced, however, that the French garrison could not long retain that city, after having relieved the siege Marshal Suchet entered it, destroyed the works, withdrew the garrison, and retired towards Barcelona. In the midst of these important operations, the events of the war with the United States were scarcely noticed. Those events were various but unimportant. The principal were that an invasion of Lower Canada by the Americans was signally defeated by the British under General Prevost: that a squadron of six British vessels was captured by a superior squadron on Lake Erie; and that after a fierce battle in Boston Bay between the "Shannon" and the "Chesapeake," the latter vessel belonging to the Americans fell into the hands of the British. An American sloop of war was also captured in St. George's Channel, and on the whole the campaign was honourable to the British arms: when defeated, it was only by overwhelming numbers.

616. *Meeting of Parliament, &c.—Campaign of Wellington—The Battle of Nations, &c.—The Allies enter Paris—Napoleon dethroned—Treaty of Peace—Honours conferred on Wellington—The Allied Sovereigns visit England—Congress of Vienna—The war with America—Peace restored, 1814.*—In the autumn session of Parliament, 1813, a bill was passed, allowing three-fourths of any militia regiment to volunteer for foreign service; and subsidies were readily granted to Sweden, Russia, and Austria, while loans were sanctioned to Spain, Portugal, and Prussia. Men of all parties agreed to these measures willingly, for there was only one feeling now existing throughout the country: that of the desire to humble the great foe of Europe. The legislative measures of parliament in the session of 1814 were of little historical importance: the supplies granted were 75,600,000*l.*, and the session closed on the 30th of July. Before that time, events of marvellous importance had followed each other with astonishing rapidity. As soon as the weather became favourable, Wellington broke up his cantonments, and resolved to penetrate as far as possible into the interior of France. Soult retired before him to Toulouse, where on the 10th of April a bloody battle was fought, in which Wellington was again victorious. Toulouse

reverses did the British meet with on the eastern coast of the Peninsula? Can you relate the principal events of the war with the United States?

616. What were the chief measures of parliament in the session of 1814? What victory did Wellington gain over the French, and



fell into his hands: a deputation gave him up the keys of that "good and loyal city" in the name of Louis XVIII. This was the last battle Wellington had to fight during this campaign, for while at Toulouse, news arrived that the allies had entered Paris; that a provisional government had been established in the name of King Louis; and that Napoleon had abdicated at Fontainebleau. After Napoleon's retreat from Moscow, the confederated princes pushed forward their armies towards the Rhine: resolved either to restrain his ambition, or to hurl him from his throne. In the whole they numbered about 500,000 men, and Napoleon, by fresh conscriptions, was enabled to face them with an army of 300,000 men. He prepared for the coming storm with his characteristic ardour and energy. Never, indeed, did he appear greater in the field than on the eve of his fall! Without waiting for his enemies he crossed the Rhine in quest of them. Victories were obtained by him over the Prussians, Russians, Austrians and Germans, at Lutzen, Bautzen, and Dresden. But in the meantime his marshals had sustained various and signal defeats, which more than counterbalanced the effects of his victories. The Russians and Prussians had captured the whole force of Vaudamme; Bernadotte, the crown prince of Sweden, had defeated Oudinot at Buelow; and the forces of Macdonald had been routed at Katzbach. Napoleon now retreated to Leipsic, whither he was followed by the Russians, Prussians, and Austrians. It was on the plains of Leipsic that the battle of nations was fought, and God gave the victory to the allies. In this great battle, which lasted several days, Napoleon lost 80,000, and the allies 50,000 men. Napoleon retreated to the Rhine, where he sued for peace. He was offered France with the Rhine for its boundary, but he rejected this dominion with disdain. War continued, and in January of this year the allies crossed the Rhine and entered France. The last resources of France were now called into action: 300,000 of the national guard of Paris were put in motion. Napoleon was defeated at Brienne; but victory again waited on his arms at Champaubert, at Montmorail, and Craonne. The loss in this last battle, however, was so great, that it was equivalent to defeat. The Russians, whom he had

what was its result? What particular news arrived when Wellington was at Toulouse? With whom had Napoleon now to contend? What victories were obtained by him? What defeats did his forces sustain? What great battle did he lose? What was the consequence of the battle of Leipsic? When did the allies enter France? In what battle in France was Napoleon defeated, and what victories did he obtain? Where was the last battle fought, and who were the victors? What



beaten, retreated to Laon, where they united with the Prussians, and where they destroyed the French forces under Marmont. Hope now fled, and Napoleon sought peace on any terms. But peace was now denied: the allies were now resolved to drive him from his throne. Rendered desperate, Napoleon now took the bold resolution of throwing the war into the rear of the enemy, into the countries between the Rhine and the Moselle. This was a false step. The allies did not follow him as he expected, but marched forward to Paris. The defence of that city had been entrusted to Joseph Buonaparte, aided by Marmont and Mortier, but the resistance was weak and ineffectual. Paris fell into the hands of the Russians and Prussians, and when Napoleon heard of its fall, he retired to Fontainebleau. He still clung to hope, and talked of vindicating his rights by the sword, but France itself was now against him, and his very marshals refused to support him; some hinting that he was no longer Emperor. Here was a fall, indeed, and under its crushing weight Napoleon abdicated: stipulating only for the little island of Elba in full sovereignty, with four hundred soldiers to guard his person. This was granted, and thus ended the dynasty of Napoleon: the very senate who had hitherto been so obsequiously submissive to him, decreeing that he had forfeited the throne of France. A treaty of peace was now concluded at Paris: a treaty which secured to France the same boundaries as existed at the close of the Bourbon rule in 1792. France also recovered her lost colonies, except Tobago, St. Lucie, and the Isle of France, which were ceded to England, and St. Domingo, which was given up to Spain. Holland, with an augmentation of territory, fell to the share of the house of Orange; Switzerland became independent; and Germany was formed into a Confederation of states. Italy, with the exception of a part which returned under the dominion of Austria, was parcelled out into independent states; and Malta was confirmed to England. A congress, consisting of plenipotentiaries of all the powers which had taken part in the war, was to assemble at Vienna in two months, to settle definitely all these new relations. The news of the important events which had taken place in France arrived during the spring session of the British parliament, and loud and long were the shouts of applause heard within the walls of St. Stephen's. When the great general, who had recently been raised to a dukedom, took his seat among them, the shouts shook its very course did the allies now pursue? Where did Napoleon abdicate, and on what terms? What were the terms of the treaty of peace now



foundations. But the admiration of the house was more nobly shown than by shouts and cheers. A splendid provision was settled on him by parliament, and the magnificent sum of 400,000*l.* was voted for the purchase of an estate suitable to his well-earned dignity. Nor were the duke's companions-in-arms forgotten: grants and peerages were bestowed on several, but one name was omitted in the list, which gave general dissatisfaction throughout the country. The brave Sir Thomas Picton had seven times during the war greatly contributed to the splendid victories obtained by the British troops, but while he received the thanks of the house, his services were left unrewarded. The return of Wellington and his brave men of arms, was followed by a visit of the allied sovereigns to England: accompanied by a numerous body of counts, barons, dukes, princes, and marshals: among whom were General Blucher, and Platoff the Hettman of the Cossacks, two of the most formidable antagonists Napoleon's forces had encountered. The reception given to these distinguished visitors was cordial and magnificent: such continuous shows, spectacles, and fêtes were given in honour of their visit, as London had never before witnessed. After the rejoicings were over, the plenipotentiaries met at Vienna: the representatives of England being Lord Castlereagh and the Duke of Wellington. Thus peace was restored to Europe, and it was soon followed by peace with America. During the year several engagements by sea and land took place between the British and American forces, the preponderance of success being in favour of the British. The final event of the war was the capture of Fort Bowyer by the British in the Gulf of Mexico; but before the event took place a treaty of peace and amity had been signed by commissioners appointed to treat about terms, which was afterwards ratified by both governments. By this treaty the conquests on both sides were restored, and a settlement of boundaries on the Canadian frontier concluded. On the primary object of dispute, the right of search, the treaty was silent: the Americans tacitly abandoning their resistance to the maritime claims of England.

617. *The Corn Laws—Agitation in England—Return of Napoleon from Elba—War renewed, &c.—Napoleon's reception in*

signed? What honours and rewards were bestowed on Wellington? Did others receive rewards as well as Wellington? What name was omitted in the list? By whom was England now visited? How were they received? Who were the British plenipotentiaries at the Congress of Vienna? What other war was this year brought to a close, and on what terms?



*France—The Battle of Waterloo—Capture of Paris—Napoleon banished to St. Helena, &c.—East India affairs, &c., 1815.*

—In the session of 1815 the first measure brought under notice, was the state of the corn laws. A bill was passed, enacting that no wheat should be imported while the price of a quarter remained under eighty shillings in the United Kingdom; except from the British territories in North America, from whence it might be introduced when the price was sixty-seven shillings. This enactment gave rise to great agitation throughout the country, and in London the mob attacked the houses of its supporters, and the military were obliged to be called in before the riots could be quelled. This agitation was succeeded by an event which astonished all Europe. This was the return of Napoleon from his insular kingdom, to re-possess himself of the French Empire! It was on the 6th of April that this information was communicated to parliament by the regent, and shortly after the question of peace or war was discussed, in consequence of a message from the throne. Some few advocated a pacific policy, but war was resolved on by both lords and commons, and the latter voted the necessary supplies: no less a sum than 90,000,000*l.* was unanimously voted for the public service. Other powers resolved on war likewise. No sooner had Talleyrand announced to the Congress of Vienna that the prisoner of Elba had returned and seated himself once more on the Bourbon throne, than the allied sovereigns resolved again to unite to crush his power. It was by an easy process that Napoleon regained the throne of France. At first he had only one thousand soldiers and three generals with him, but as he traversed France, every regiment sent against him joined his standard. The whole army was, indeed, almost to a man in his favour, and discovering this, as Napoleon approached Paris, King Louis fled from it, and his rival entered it in triumph. He resumed the reins of empire, in the midst of the loud acclamations of the Parisians, and all seemed to promise for him a happy future; but there was a storm arising in the horizon which was to shatter his throne into pieces for ever. Britain, Russia, Austria, Prussia, and Holland entered into a treaty, binding themselves not to lay down their arms till his power was for ever broken. Napoleon

617. What bill respecting the corn laws was passed this session? To what did this give rise? How was the riot quelled? By what great event was Europe now astonished? How did parliament act on this occasion? How did congress act? By what means did Napoleon recover the empire of France? What nations combined against



prepared to meet the storm : France became one vast camp, and armies were despatched towards Belgium, Lorraine, Franche Comte, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. Napoleon joined that section destined to enter Belgium : his design being to "measure himself with Wellington." His army consisted of about 125,000 men, and 350 pieces of cannon, while that of Wellington amounted only to 76,000, and about eighty pieces of cannon. At first Wellington took up his position at Quatre Bras ; but tidings having arrived that Napoleon had defeated the Prussians at Ligny, he fell back with his army to the position of Waterloo. It was at the dawn of the 18th of June that Napoleon discovered the British on the heights of Waterloo, and he exclaimed with joy, "Ah ! I have these English !" Forgetting that he had a general to encounter who had successively vanquished his most distinguished marshals, he made sure of victory. It was about eleven o'clock, after heavy rain, and beneath a still lowering sky, that the first gun was fired by the French, and the battle commenced. The strife was fearful. It was a succession of furious charges in squadrons and masses upon the British line, continued for eight long hours. But it was all in vain : at every charge the French troops returned crippled and dismayed. As the evening approached every part of the French army except the guards, on whom Napoleon placed his greatest reliance, had advanced and been driven back with ranks frightfully thinned. At length the guards were put in motion. They advanced in two massy columns, and moved resolutely on under a destructive fire ; but their steadiness and resolution proved fruitless. When within fifty yards from the British position they attempted to deploy, but the close fire upon them was too terrible to withstand : their flanks were enveloped by some British guards ; they became mixed in a confused mass ; and were thrown into irretrievable confusion and slaughtered like sheep. There was no more fighting. Napoleon fled, followed by his army ; and Blucher having appeared just as the battle was over, the task of pursuit was assigned to him. He would follow the fugitives, he said, with his last horse and his last man, and he sternly fulfilled his threat. In their flight the French were cut down on the road in heaps like cattle, and the whole army was either destroyed or dispersed. In the battle and retreat the French lost

him ? How did Napoleon prepare to meet his enemies ? Against whom did he march personally ? Where did he defeat the Prussians ? Where did he meet with the British ? On what day was the battle of Waterloo fought ? Can you relate what you have read about it ? What was its final result ? What was the loss on both sides ? Whither did



30,000 men in killed and wounded, and the British and Hanoverians about 14,000. Many officers were killed; and among them on the side of the British were General Picton and Sir William Ponsonby, two of the bravest and most skilful veterans in the army. Of Wellington's staff there was scarcely an officer who did not receive a wound. The victory was, indeed, gained at a great price; but by it, this long and terrible war which had desolated Europe was finished. On his defeat Napoleon fled to Paris, still calculating upon the devotion of the *corps legislatif* to his cause. But he was deceived. Both chambers declared that there was but one man between France and peace, and Napoleon was compelled to sign his second abdication. In the meantime the allies had been marching towards Paris. They were opposed by French troops at St. Cloud, Issy, and Mendon, but no successful opposition could be made, and on the 3rd of July, Massena, commander-in-chief of the French forces, signed a capitulation, by which it was agreed that Louis XVIII. should be restored to his throne, and that Paris should be garrisoned by the allied armies. Old Blucher wished to take revenge on the Parisian population and the city of Paris, for the calamities brought on suffering Europe, but his vengeance was restrained. Thus deserted, Napoleon resolved to quit France for ever. But whither was he to go? that was the question. He was, however, soon resolved, for there was only one nation in whom he could confide for mercy. In his extremity, therefore, he presented himself on board the English ship, *Bellerophon*, from whence he wrote a letter asking the prince regent's protection. He imagined that he would be allowed to reside in England, but his known restless ambition prevented this favour being extended to him. An order was given that he should be conveyed to St. Helena, in the South Atlantic Ocean, as the common prisoner of the allies, but under the particular supervision of England. This was done: on the 18th of October the man who had been for nineteen years the scourge of Europe and the terror of the world, landed on that solitary rock which was destined to be his retreat, restraint, and tomb. By his captivity the object of the war was attained. A treaty of peace was not necessary, but the allies thought that they were obliged to require some sacrifices of France: partly to indemnify them for the expenses of the

Napoleon flee? How was he received at Paris? What stipulation was signed by Massena, and when? To whom did Napoleon give himself up as prisoner? How was he treated? What treaties were entered into between France and the allies, and what were their leading terms?



war, and partly to obviate future danger. A treaty, therefore, was concluded called "The Second Peace of Paris," by which the boundaries of France in 1790, not 1792 as in the "First Peace of Paris," were fixed on for the future; and France had to cede a considerable portion of territory to Holland, Sardinia, and Switzerland. France also agreed to pay 700,000,000 francs, as indemnity to the allied powers, and 50,000,000 francs annually towards the support of 150,000 men belonging to the allies, who were to occupy France for five years. Numerous partial treaties were concluded among the different powers, by one of which France had to restore to their rightful possessors all those treasures of art which the French had plundered in the different periods of the revolutionary war. Great Britain gained nothing by any of these treaties except an indemnity of money, but during this eventful year her sovereignty was extended over the fine and fruitful island of Ceylon, by the dethronement of the tyrant king of Candy. In the East Indies, also, the result of a war which broke out this year between the British government and the State of Nepaul, added the whole country from the Kemaon to the Sutlej to the British Company's dominions.

618. *Measures in Parliament—Royal Marriages—Riots—Expedition to Algiers, 1816.*—The session of 1816 was chiefly characterized by debates on the late treaties, on the slave-trade, and on measures of finance. The chancellor of the exchequer proposed an income tax of five per cent., but it created such a storm of opposition throughout the country that he was defeated, and he therefore had recourse to a loan. The supplies voted were 39,400,000*l.*, being more than 50,000,000*l.* less than in the preceding year. In March, the prince regent sent a message to both houses, announcing the marriage contract of his daughter, the princess Charlotte Augusta, with his serene highness prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg. A liberal provision was voted to them during their joint lives, the whole of which was to be continued if the prince should die first, and nearly the whole should he be the survivor. The nuptials were celebrated in May, and two months after another marriage took place between the princess Mary, fourth daughter of his majesty, and her cousin the duke of Gloucester. Parliament was prorogued in July, at which period there was great distress throughout the

What island was this year added to the British dominions? What territories were obtained in India?

618. What were the chief measures in parliament in 1816? What marriages occurred this year in the royal family? In what state was



country This distress arose at first chiefly from the expensive war in which England had been so long engaged; but as the year advanced, the calamities of an inclement season and a deficient harvest were added to a general stagnation of trade and commerce. The consequence of all this was a great rise in the price of the necessaries of life, which, combined with a reduction of wages and want of employment, engendered distress and discontent. Serious tumults took place in several counties, and in the island of Ely an insurrection occurred, which was not suppressed till many of the ringleaders were captured. At the close of the year a serious riot took place in London, which was chiefly promoted by mob orators, and the rioters proceeded to acts of violence. Troops were called in, and several ringleaders were taken and punished; but the greatest criminal, Watson, escaped to America. The mob orators, Henry Hunt, and others, stirred up the mischief by their harangues and then retired, so that they escaped punishment. So disturbed was the state of the country that the habeas corpus act was suspended, and other violent measures adopted for the restoration of order and the authority of government. As England was now at peace with France and Europe, and was freed from all serious dangers, the British government this year fitted out an expedition against the piratical states of Barbary. Those states had during the war infested the commerce of the Mediterranean, and subjected Christians to the most dreadful slavery. Lord Exmouth was sent with a fleet to compel these states to abandon their piracies, and surrender up all Christian captives. Tunis and Tripoli yielded to the demand; but Algiers, relying on the great strength of the fortifications, bid defiance to the British admiral. Algiers was, therefore, bombarded, and the city and harbour were quickly reduced to a heap of shattered ruins. The dey of Algiers was humbled: he agreed to abolish Christian slavery; to give up all slaves in his dominion; to return all monies received for the redemption of slaves in the present year; and to make reparation and an apology to the British consul, for the indignities to which he had been subjected. The ships traversing the Mediterranean, from this period, have been freed from the depredation of these various states of Barbary.

619. *Measures of Economy, &c.—Riots at Manchester, &c.—Death of the Princess Charlotte, 1817.*—The distress which

the country, and what were the causes of that state? What particular riots occurred? How were the riots quelled? What expedition was fitted out this year, and for what purpose, and with what result?

619. What noble instances of sympathy were displayed at this period



prevailed in the country at this period met with noble and unwonted sympathy. Early in the session a communication was made by lord Castlereagh, from the prince regent, stating that he had determined upon a cession of 50,000*l.* per annum of that part of his income which related to his personal expenses, while the existing distress continued. The example of the prince regent was followed by ministers, who voluntarily gave up one-tenth of their official incomes, and by lord Camden, one of the tellers of the exchequer, who relinquished almost the whole of his large profits till the distress abated. The expenditure of the year was also calculated at 6,500,000*l.* less than that of the preceding year, and a further saving was contemplated in the future. But while this sympathy was displayed, stringent acts were passed for the suppression of the disorders created by mob orators. These acts appeared to infringe on the public liberty, yet they were effectual in saving the country from violence and bloodshed, if not from the horrors of anarchy. Many of the mob orators were apprehended and committed to the Tower on the charge of high treason, and the suspension of the habeas corpus especially struck a well-timed blow against the hopes and plans of the apostles of reform. One of the most ardent reformers, William Cobbett, retired to America, intimating his intention not to return till England should be again under the protection of her constitution. Early in the session, a secret committee had been appointed in the commons, to investigate certain papers which contained an account of meetings and combinations held in various parts of the country, tending not only to disturb the public tranquility, but to overthrow the whole frame of the laws and constitution. In the last report of this committee, mention was made of disturbances which had occurred at Manchester. These disturbances were of an extraordinary description. A large body of men, urged by the resolution of despair, determined to proceed to London to explain their distress to the regent in person. Each individual provided himself with a blanket and a small stock of provisions, and on the day of their departure such crowds assembled around them that the magistrates deemed it necessary to call in the aid of the military. The principal instigators of the mob were arrested, but a considerable number set out on their mission to London. The "blanketeering expedition," however, pro-

for the sufferings of the poor? How did parliament endeavour to alleviate the distress? What measures were taken to suppress disturbances? What effect had these measures? Of what character was the riot at Manchester? What expedition was undertaken, and how



ceeded no further than Staffordshire, for the poor creatures who composed it were obliged to halt there from exhaustion and the want of sustenance. But these riots had the effect of filling the prisons throughout the country with objects of suspicion or crime. Many of these were as arbitrarily released by the authorities as they had been committed, while the more prominent leaders were either detained in custody, or sent, for greater security, to the metropolis. Some were brought to trial, and at Derby, twenty-three received sentence of death, and three were actually executed. In the midst of these scenes of distress, the nation was called upon to put on the garb of mourning for one whose hand had ever been held forth for the relief of human suffering. The princess Charlotte, the idolized hope of a free nation, whose nuptials with prince Leopold had in the previous year been solemnized with great joy, expired on the 6th of November, after having given birth to a still born child. The indications of sorrow on this event were general and sincere: the day of her funeral was one of voluntary humiliation, and of sorrowful meditation on the frailty of human happiness. Her life had been a bright pattern of piety and virtue, and the tears of a nation were plentifully shed over her memory.

620. *Extension of the Bank Restriction, &c.—Royal Marriages—A General Election, &c.—Death of Queen Charlotte, 1818.*—It has been seen in a previous page, that in 1797, bank-notes were made a legal tender till the year 1818. At this time the bank had made ample preparations for resuming cash payments at the time fixed by parliament, but pecuniary transactions with foreign powers required that the bank restriction should be extended. In this session, therefore, a bill was passed for its continuance till July 1819. In this session, also, the alien act was extended for two years longer; it being deemed necessary to keep out as well as send out of Great Britain, persons who might take advantage of the vicinity of France to excite a spirit hostile to the security of this and other European governments. In the course of this year marriages were contracted between the duke of Clarence and the princess of Saxe Meningen; the duke of Kent and the princess Leiningen; and the duke of Cambridge with the princess of Hesse. Suitable provisions were made for the royal personages by parliament, but during the discussion,

did it end? What effect had these riots, and how were the rioters punished? For whose death did the nation mourn at the close of the year? What was the character of the princess Charlotte?

620. What acts were this year extended, and to what periods? What royal marriages were contracted? When was parliament prorogued,



Mr. Wilberforce inveighed in strong terms against the royal marriage act; an act which prevented the several branches of the family on our throne from entertaining the best feelings, and from forming connexions which might at once promote their happiness and secure their virtue. Parliament was prorogued in June, and was soon after dissolved by proclamation. A general election took place in the summer, at which time great disturbances took place in different parts of the country, from which the election created some diversion. Men were too busily employed in returning their favourites to parliament to take any notice of the troubles by which they were surrounded. At the close of the year death again entered the palace of the royal family. Queen Charlotte expired at Kew, in the 75th year of her age, and her remains were interred at Windsor; the day of her funeral being observed with every suitable mark of respect. As a wife and a mother, queen Charlotte was a pattern to all her sex; and her morality was of the highest order. During the period in which she presided over the British court, she preserved it from the contamination of vice, notwithstanding the dangers proceeding from the licentiousness of other European dynasties, and that moral relaxation which our own prosperity was so well calculated to produce. To the virtues presented from the throne during the reign of George the Third, may be in part ascribed the withstanding of the storm which had visited the rest of Europe with the horrors of invasion or anarchy. They formed the golden and the binding link of the social chain.

621. *Committee on the Criminal Code—Resumption of Cash Payments—Seditious Assemblages—Cession of Parga to the Turks, 1819.*—Up to this period of English history, more than 200 crimes were defined in our statute book as worthy of death. Philanthropists had long deplored this state of things, and had denounced it as a national disgrace. In former sessions, Sir Samuel Romilly had frequently brought it under notice, and in some instances he had been the means of softening down the rigour of our laws. That great man was now no more; but this year, Sir James Macintosh took up the important subject. A motion was made by him that a committee should be formed to take it into consideration in all its bearings, and though it was opposed by ministers, his motion was carried. Sir James divided the

and by what event was it followed? What member of the royal family died this year? What was the character of queen Charlotte?

621. What alterations were this year proposed to be made in the criminal code? What measures were taken for the resumption of



cases connected with capital punishment into three classes: those in which it was *always*; those in which it was *frequently*; and those in which it was *never* put in force. The first and second of these cases he proposed to leave untouched: the third, amounting to upwards of 150 crimes, he contended should be expunged from the statute book as relics of barbarous times, and as disgraceful to the character of a free and enlightened community. In this session measures were taken for the resumption of cash payments by the bank of England. A series of resolutions were passed by which the bank should be compelled to pay, at certain dates, all its notes on demand in the legal coin of the realm. In his speech on the prorogation of parliament, the prince regent expressed a confident hope that these measures would be productive of beneficial consequences; and at the close of that speech avowed a determination to employ the powers provided by law for the suppression of sedition. In the midland and northern manufacturing districts, and in some parts of Scotland, sedition had prevailed to an alarming extent. A party, calling themselves radical reformers, had recently obtained much notice by their active exertions, and had acquired much influence from the sedulity with which they propagated the notion that such a reform of parliament, as would make its members true representatives of the people, would be the surest means of putting an end to present and future sufferings. Henry Hunt, whose merit consisted only in bold daring and mob oratory, was one of the most notorious of these demagogues. Meetings were held at Manchester, Glasgow, Leeds, Stockport, and other places, for the alleged purpose of petitioning against the corn bill. Hunt was the hero of the day at Manchester, and it was not his fault that the assemblage dispersed without tumult. It was rightly feared that if these meetings were allowed to be held, the inflammatory harangues of their orators would lead to mischief, and government was resolved to interfere. When, therefore, Henry Hunt appeared to address a meeting of 60,000 men held at Birmingham, he had no sooner commenced his harangue, than the commanding officer of a body of yeomanry, who advanced with drawn swords to the stage, took him into custody. Several others were also taken into custody, and the yeomanry then aimed at the destruction of their banners. A riot now commenced,

cash payments? What was the state of the nation at this period? Can you relate what you have read about the disturbances which prevailed? What prosecutions took place? What measures were taken



and many persons were trampled under the feet of the horses, and some were cut down by sabres. Some were killed, and several hundreds wounded, but in a short time the mob was dispersed and tranquility restored. Hunt was subsequently tried for conspiracy, and was sentenced to two years and a half of imprisonment, and then to find security for good behaviour for five years. Others were punished by imprisonment, but faction still prevailed: meetings were held at Leeds, Glasgow, and other places, at which the orators compared the sufferers to the Russells, Hampdens, and Sydneys of olden times, and seemed to aspire to the same degree of martyrdom. So great were the disturbances throughout the country that parliament was summoned to meet in November, to take into consideration measures to suppress them, lest they should bring confusion and ruin on the nation. Several bills were passed for that purpose, the most important of which went to restrain the liberty of the press; to prevent secret military training; and to ordain that no meetings should be held unless requisition for the same should be signed by seven householders, and the time and place of meeting be appointed by a magistrate. The passing of the celebrated "six acts," as these measures are called in history, seems to have had the effect of restoring tranquility, for in the succeeding year no mention is made of any outbreak among the people. The manifestations of popular feeling which had been thus exhibited, however, greatly contributed to the reform of our institutions, for when the public fears were allayed, an earnest desire arose for the repression of grievances and the promotion of the general welfare. Even in this session the question of reform in parliament was warmly advocated, although no results accrued therefrom. At the close of the session, ministers were loudly condemned for having during this year, by a convention concluded between great Britain and Turkey, ceded the fortress of Parga nominally to the latter power, but in reality to its bitter foe, Ali Pasha. The Pargliotes were the last of the Christians in Epirus who had resisted the tyranny of Ali Pasha, and they had in 1814 placed themselves under British protection, but they had recently been ordered by the British consul, either to submit to the Albanian despot, or to quit the country. They chose the latter alternative: an event which made the whole continent ring with exclamations against the British government, by parliament to suppress the disturbances, and what effect had those measures? What convention was entered into between great Britain



which were reiterated by the parliament and people of England.

622. *Deaths of the duke of Kent and George III., 1820.*—At the opening of this year, January 21st, Edward duke of Kent expired after a short illness, leaving behind him a virtuous wife and an infant princess, afterwards queen Victoria. His character was one of great amiability, and his loss was deplored by the nation. Eight days after his death, his father, George III., died in the eighty-second year of his age, and, counting the ten years of the regency, in the sixtieth year of his reign. Over the last nine years of his reign a dark and mysterious veil had been drawn. The loss of his mental powers had been quickly followed by the loss of sight. All was dark within and without. In the periods of national solicitude his mind had felt no interest, and in the hour of acute domestic feeling no tears of affection had moistened his eyes. The festivities and rejoicings which had taken place at the close of the momentous struggle in which he left his country when his malady drove him into retirement, although they shook the nation with tumults of joy, touched not *his* heart, for though it pulsed it was dead to emotion. People had long mourned for him as one dead, and when his spirit had really departed from his earthly tenement, their grief was as sincere as it was universal. Few sovereigns, indeed, have descended to the grave more generally and deservedly respected and loved than George III. At his death the garb of mourning was worn throughout the country, and thousands flocked to the regal castle at Windsor where he had been so long immured in twofold blindness, to catch a sight of his crown and coffin as he lay in state. He was mourned over as the “dear old king,” and the “good old king,” and as such he will be venerated as long as the roll of British history remains in the records of Time.

623. *Notable incidents in this reign unnoticed in the text.*—

(1). At the close of the period immediately preceding the accession of George III., the national industry of England was on the eve of important changes and extension. An act of the 32nd year of George II., 1758-9, introduced a new system of still-water navigation, which

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and Turkey, and in what light was that convention looked upon on the continent and in England?

622. When did the duke of Kent die? What was his character? By whose death was that event followed, and when? In what condition had George III. been, and for how long? How did the nation pay respect to his memory? By what endearing names were the people wont to call him?



extended so rapidly, that during the reign of George III. between two and three thousand miles of canal were made ; rendering the system of inland navigation so perfect that no spot in England, south of Durham, is more than fifteen miles from water communication. The duke of Bridgewater was the first great promoter of this system of navigation, and his canal was opened on the 17th of July, 1761. One of the most remarkable features of this canal is, that it is carried over the river Irwell, at the elevation of about thirty-nine feet, by an aqueduct, the approaches to which are formed by long and high embankments. This work was ridiculed as a "castle in the air" by one engineer to whom the plan was submitted, but it was successfully accomplished by Brindley.

(2). Between 1760 and 1774 no less than four hundred and fifty-two acts of parliament were passed for the repair of highways, and during that period turnpike roads greatly increased in number. The right principles of road-making, however, were as yet but imperfectly understood. About the same time the erection of bridges as a means of internal communication received great attention, of which the beautiful old bridge over the Thames at Blackfriars is a notable example.

(3). In 1759 the attention of Watt, a mathematical instrument maker to the university of Glasgow, was directed to the steam-engine, and in 1774 a new engine made by him was exhibited at Soho, and approved by a deputation from the mining interest in Cornwall. An act passed in 1775 vested in Watt, his executors, administrators, and assigns, the sole use and property of certain steam engines, commonly called "fire engines," of his invention described in the said act, throughout his Majesty's dominions for a period of twenty-five years. These engines were made for mining purposes, and proved of the utmost utility in coal and tin mines.

(4). In 1760 the first furnace was blown for the smelting and manufacture of iron on the banks of the Carron in Stirlingshire, under the superintendence of Smeaton, who was afterwards assisted by Watt. The Carron works were among the earliest where iron-stone was smelted by pit-coal, and were founded by Dr. John Roebuck, who made some discoveries by which that operation might be facilitated. At this period, indeed, the iron manufacture of this country made great advances, and exercised an important influence on many other branches of industry.

(5). Between 1760 and 1780 several acts were passed incorporating parishes and districts in different parts of the kingdom, and vesting them with power to borrow money to erect houses of industry, and to frame local regulations for the government of the poor. These acts, with others respecting the apprenticeship of the poor, &c., continued in operation till the year 1834, when the present poor-law system was adopted. In 1775 an act was passed repealing an old act of the time of Elizabeth, which enacted that no cottage should be erected without having four acres of land attached thereto.

(6). The frequent recurrence of unfavourable seasons from 1766 to 1775 having occasioned high prices, an extensive system of enclosing lands uncultivated commenced. In thirty years the number of acres enclosed amounted to nearly three millions, and much of it was brought into cultivation. During that period about eight hundred acts of parliament relating to enclosures, draining, &c., were passed. Numerous acts were also passed relating to canals, harbours, bridges, &c., on which subject Chalmers observes, "The world will contemplate this enterprise with wonder. Millions and tens of millions have been raised upon the people for carrying on an interesting war, yet they



have found money, as they had skill and industry, to improve this island of bliss amid the subject seas."

(7). Several of the canal acts passed at this period contained provisions for the construction of short railways to connect mines, quarries, lime-kilns, or manufactories with the canals, or as inclined planes, to connect two portions of canals, in lieu of a series of locks. The earliest of what may be distinguished as public railways, however, for traffic in general merchandize, was that known as the Surrey Iron Railway, which extended from the Thames at Wandsworth to Croydon. The act authorizing its construction passed in 1801, but it was not opened till 1805.

(8). In 1779 the diving-bell was first employed by Smeaton in submarine building operations, when repairing the foundations of Hexham bridge, but it was not till near the close of the eighteenth century that the diving-bell was practically employed for submarine purposes.

(9). The first official enumeration of the population of Great Britain was made in the year 1801, since which period a decennary census has been taken, successively becoming more accurate in its returns.

(10). Early in this century, the application of steam-power to navigation was successfully accomplished. The Comet steamer, which first appeared in 1811 upon the Clyde, was the first which worked for hire in the kingdom: an improvement which rapidly extended, and excited the travelling propensities of the people in the same manner as the railway system of a later period did. The individual by whom the application of steam navigation to actual use was first effected in this country was Henry Bell. He was the proprietor of the Comet, and as soon as she was built the Comet was employed as a jaunting boat, "all over the coasts of England, Ireland, and Scotland, to show the public." But the regular employment of steam-vessels for deep-sea navigation, and in the capacity of post-office packets, appears to be owing to David Napier, who, from the year 1818 to 1830, effected more for the improvement of steam navigation than any other man.

(11). The beautiful invention of the safety lamp, by Sir Humphry Davy, the common use of which dates from the year 1816, moderated the dangers incident to mining operations, and facilitated the working of productive but foul mines, which otherwise must have been neglected. This lamp was contrived to afford additional security to the miner by enabling him to carry on his mining operations with but little risk in an atmosphere so highly charged with explosive gas as to ignite if the flame of a lighted candle came into contact with it. The flame of his lamp was surrounded by a cylindrical cage of wire gauze, accurately closed in at top and bottom so as to prevent the admission of air, excepting through its meshes and interstices. Armed with this apparatus, the miner is enabled fearlessly to enter into workings of the most dangerous character; although its use has not wholly put an end to the fearful catastrophes incidental to the valuable labours of the coal-miner.

(12). In 1807 a new and most valuable application of coal was effected in the manufacture of gas for illuminating streets and buildings. The originator of this new mode for illuminating the streets of London was an enterprising German named Winsor. In the above-mentioned year he lighted Pall Mall with gas; but it was not till 1813 that the first company for lighting the metropolis was formed, and some years elapsed before the city and suburbs were fully illuminated.

(13). During the long reign of George III. great improvements took place in every branch of trade and manufacture. Many gigantic



buildings were executed or commenced, such as the magnificent aqueduct of Pontysylte, in Wales; the Plymouth breakwater; the Caledonian canal suspension bridges; and several fine bridges over the Thames, in different parts of London and its vicinity. The commerce of England increased a thousandfold during this reign, one great cause of which was the application of machinery in our manufactures. During this period also, savings banks, to encourage habits of prudence among the labouring classes, were established, and brought under legislative supervision. In this age arose the British and national schools, those great educational systems of the present day. The Bible Society was likewise founded, and missions were established to carry the blessings of the Gospel to the heathen. At home, hospitals were founded on a liberal scale, and the introduction of vaccination, the great discovery of Jenner, dates from about the commencement of the present century. In a word, although the reign of George III. was marked by long and bloody wars, yet it was also marked by great internal prosperity; by grand discoveries in science, art, and manufactures; by a remarkable enlightenment of the public mind; and by a rapid progress towards the perfection of civilization.

## GEORGE IV.

Began to reign January 29th, 1820;—died June 25th, 1830.

624. *Declaration of the king, &c.—Cato-street conspiracy—George the Fourth's first parliament—Message respecting the queen, &c., 1820.*—George IV. had so long governed the nation as prince regent, that his accession did not excite much public interest. The general feeling, indeed, towards the new sovereign, personally, was that of indifference, owing to the profligacy of his youth, the irregularities of his riper years, and his conduct to his wife, now queen Caroline, whom he had long repudiated, and who, when he ascended the throne, was living in foreign lands as an exile. Yet there were circumstances which led to the belief that the reign of the new monarch would be attended with happy circumstances. He had been long accustomed to the art of governing, he ascended the throne at a mature age, and he commenced his reign in the midst of profound peace. His first public act was to summon a council, at which the emblems of office, having been surrendered by the officers of the crown, were immediately

624. What was the general feeling towards George IV. on his accession? To what was this general feeling owing? What was his first



restored to their possessors. On restoring the insignia of office to the ministry, his majesty declared that nothing but the support which he received from parliament and the country in times most eventful, and in circumstances most arduous, could inspire him with that confidence which his present situation demanded: adding, that he trusted the experience of the past would satisfy all classes that it would be his one desire to promote their prosperity and happiness, as well as to maintain unimpaired the religion, laws, and liberties of the kingdom. This declaration was made public, and on the 31st of January the king was proclaimed, first under the portico of his palace, and then at various stations throughout the "good city of London." But scarcely had George IV. ascended the throne when a plot was discovered, having for its object the overthrow of his government, by the assassination of the whole cabinet. The six acts recently passed had quelled open rebellion; but there was still an under-current of insubordination among the people. The chief leader of this plot was Arthur Thistlewood, who had recently been tried as an accomplice of Watson, and acquitted. On his acquittal, he sent a challenge to Lord Sidmouth, for which offence he was imprisoned and fined, and on his liberation he determined to take a most foul and deadly revenge. Gathering around him some bold, daring, and reckless characters, among whom were Ings, a butcher, Davidson, a creole, and Brunt and Tidd, shoemakers, he, with them and others, determined to destroy his majesty's ministers. The plot was to be carried into execution at a cabinet dinner given by lord Harrowby; but before the day arrived the conspiracy was discovered, and on the evening when it was to be put into execution, as the conspirators were assembled in a stable in Cato-street, and were about to sally forth on their dreadful mission, a strong body of police and soldiers surrounded them and called upon them to surrender. A conflict ensued, in which one of the police was killed, but all the above-named desperadoes were captured, brought to trial, and executed, while others were taken and transported for life. Parliament was sitting at the time this conspiracy occurred; but, according to the principles of the British constitution, the demise of the crown is followed within six months by a dissolution of parliament, and accordingly it was dissolved by commission on the 28th of February. A general election took place soon after, the result of

public act? What was the nature of his declaration? What conspiracy was discovered, and how was it set aside? When was parliament dissolved? What was the result of the election? What particular sub.



which was that the opposition gained a slight accession of strength, although the new parliament did not materially differ from that by which it had been preceded. The session commenced on the 27th of April, and during its sitting three out of the six bills brought in by Sir James Mackintosh for the amendment of the criminal code, passed into law. Many grievous stains by these enactments were expunged from the statute book, but it was still blotted by many imperfections, some of which still exist. The subjects of education, free trade, and the corn laws were this year taken into consideration by parliament, but the all-absorbing topic of the session related to queen Caroline. On hearing of the accession of her husband to the throne, queen Caroline, who had retired to Italy in 1814 to avoid persecution, returned to England. Ministers endeavoured to prevent her taking such a step, but her resolution was fixed, and she reached the British shores on the 6th of June. The people received her with a hearty welcome, thousands met her on the beach at Dover, and her progress to London resembled a triumphal procession. Great commotions followed. The queen stood charged with immoral conduct, and the whole kingdom was turned into one great arena of disputation, in which her innocence or guilt was advocated according to the different views of the people. On her return, the king was compelled to take the field against his wife. Messages were sent to both houses, communicating certain papers relative to the conduct of her majesty since her departure from England, to which the king recommended immediate and serious attention. In the commons, however, this message was anticipated by a communication from the queen stating that she had returned to England for the purpose of maintaining her innocence and rights; protesting against any secret tribunal appointed by her accusers; complaining of the insults she had received from foreign courts influenced by that of Great Britain, and appealing to the justice of the commons of England. The debate on this subject was a stormy one in both houses; but the result was the appointment of a secret committee to examine into the nature of the charges brought against the queen. This secret committee made their report on the 4th of July, and the nature of this report was such that a bill of pains and penalties was brought into the House of Lords. This was an act which, according to precedents in former ages, might pronounce the queen guilty of an adulterous intercourse, degrade her from

jects first occupied the attention of the new parliament? What was the all-absorbing topic of the session? What proceedings were taken against the queen? What was the result of those proceedings? From



her exalted station, and dissolve her marriage with the king. The bill passed a first, second, and third reading; but before the question was put "that the bill do pass," it was abandoned. The peers shrank from the odium they would have obtained by pushing the matter to an extremity. And thus ended, in defeat and disgrace, the domestic war which George IV. had been carrying on for twenty-five years against his consort. After this the queen went in state to St. Paul's to return thanks, on which occasion she was surrounded by such multitudes as to make it difficult for her to pass through the streets of the metropolis. The event was celebrated by illuminations, ringing of bells, firing of cannon, and addresses of congratulation from all parts of England. The queen, however, was soon destined to see her popularity wane. Throughout the whole affair, her supporters were the great whig leaders of the day; and when she became tired of the rout, and gave orders that addresses should only be presented on one day of the week, and gradually withdrew herself from her advocates, her cause was deserted. What queen Caroline was doing soon became as much a matter of indifference to the people as what her royal husband was doing, and her final fate an object of curiosity more than of interest. The trial of queen Caroline was an ill-judged proceeding on the part of the ministry. All the evidence against her was procured by spies employed for that purpose, and all history shows that evidence thus obtained is not to be relied upon. The innocence or guilt of queen Caroline remains a question to this day; though it might well have been whispered into the ears of her royal husband, "Let him that is without sin first cast a stone at her."

625. *The session of 1821—Coronation of George IV.—Death of the queen.*—In the previous session the name of the queen had been expunged from the liturgy, and at the opening of the present attempts were made for its restoration, but without effect. A provision of 50,000*l.* per annum was voted her, which she at first refused to accept unless her name was restored to the liturgy; but as necessity knows no law, she finally consented. This seeming inconsistency had the effect of extinguishing all her influence over the public mind; but on the other hand, the issue of the trial lowered the king also in the public estimation. The catholic question and parliamentary reform formed topics of debate this session, but they what causes did her popularity die away? By what means was the evidence brought against her?

625. What provision was made for queen Caroline by parliament? What questions were debated in this session, and what were the



were not followed by any tangible results, except that the corrupt borough of Grampound was disfranchised, and its privileges transferred to the county of York. A proposition to repeal the malt tax was negatived, but ministers relieved agriculturists from a duty which had hitherto been paid on horses employed in husbandry. Parliament was prorogued on the 11th of July. Eight days after, his majesty was solemnly crowned in Westminster Abbey, in the midst of great pomp and magnificence. Previous to that ceremony the queen had preferred a claim to be crowned like her predecessors; but not only was this refused, but on the day of the coronation she was allowed to go from door to door of the abbey seeking admittance, and to be at every door rejected with scorn and contumely. It was anticipated that her appearance on that occasion would cause a commotion, and, to draw off public attention from her, shows, balloons, fireworks, and all sorts of entertainments were got up to attract the populace from the vicinity of the abbey. Every disposable regiment was brought into or near the metropolis in case of an outbreak, but there was now no fear; the queen's popularity had so abated that no one lifted up a voice in her favour. Up to this period she had borne her wrongs and injuries proudly; but by the treatment she on that day received, not only from officials but from the populace, who but a short time before had made themselves hoarse with applauding, her spirit was at length subdued. She had placed her last stake on the hazard of that day, and having failed in her object, she sank under the deepest humiliation. Her grief was intense, and death soon came to her relief. She died on the 7th of August of a disease accelerated and augmented by her bitter persecutions. Her ruling passion was strong in death. She directed that her remains should be interred in her own country, and that there should be this emphatic inscription engraven on her tomb:—  
HERE LIES CAROLINE OF BRUNSWICK, THE INJURED QUEEN OF ENGLAND! It might have been supposed that now her spirit had departed her persecutions would have ceased. It was not so. The road that led to Romford in Essex, where her corpse was to be put on board the ship which was to convey her to the land of her fathers, was from her residence on the Thames, through the heart of the capital, by her husband's palace and St. Paul's Cathedral. Ministers unwisely sought to prevent the corpse from taking this direction. A military

results? When was the king crowned? How was the queen treated on this occasion? What effect had this treatment on her constitution? When did she die? In what manner was she persecuted after her



force was employed to force it up a narrow street or lane so that it might reach the northern outskirts of London, and get into the road for Romford, without occasioning any popular commotion. But the means employed to prevent commotion proved to be the very means of bringing it about. The populace, whose predilection for the queen now that she was dead seems to have returned, resolved that the procession should proceed by the natural route, and to this end the pavement was torn up, trenches made in the road, and the avenues blocked up in every direction. The people triumphed; but at Hyde Park upper gate a conflict took place between the military and the people, and two of the latter were killed. The procession entered the city, where it was joined by the lord mayor and the authorities; the shops being closed and the bells of the different churches tolling as it passed along. Thus was queen Caroline persecuted to the last: the final act outdoing all which had preceded it, and being unworthy of manhood.

626. *Changes in the cabinet—Agricultural distress, &c.—Measures of relief—The king's visit to Scotland—Other changes, 1822.*—As the distress of the agriculturists still prevailed, and as a loud and imperative call for retrenchment and remission of taxation was made by both landholders and farmers, the treasury began to feel alarm. To strengthen themselves, ministers opened the doors of office to the Grenville party, which, though not united with the whigs, was generally found in the ranks of opposition. The greatest accession made was in the exchange of lord Sidmouth for Mr. Peel, as secretary of state for the home department. Mr. Canning however, who had been a tower of strength to the ministry, was compelled to retire, the king having become offended with him for having advocated the cause of the queen, which he had done with a warmth of feeling and honesty of purpose which did him honour. On his retirement from the ministry, Mr. Canning in an eloquent speech moved that Roman catholic peers should be restored to the right of sitting and voting in parliament; and his motion, after a stern opposition, was carried in the commons, but was afterwards rejected by the lords. As measures of relief to the agricultural interest, the annual malt duty was repealed, and a loan of 1,000,000*l.* on exchequer bills granted on the security of warehoused corn.

death, and how did the populace resent it?

626. What changes took place in the cabinet in 1822? On what grounds was Canning dismissed from office? What measures of relief to agriculturists passed in this session? What particular imposts were



It was also enacted that when wheat should reach eighty shillings per quarter, a new scale of duties should be brought into operation. Later in the session, ministers repealed that part of the currency bill of 1819 which confined the issue of small notes to 1823; it was extended for ten years. This measure had the effect of causing symptoms of returning prosperity, for as country bankers increased their paper issues, farmers obtained a higher price for their produce, and land lords increased rents for their land. This seeming prosperity, however, in the end proved to be illusive. During this session other imposts were reduced, such as the additional tax on leather, and that on windows and hearths in Ireland. Several bills were also passed, having for their objects the relaxation of the navigation laws and the promotion of free trade. Parliament was prorogued on the 5th of August, and on the 10th the king paid a visit to Scotland, "to drink health to its chieftains and clans, and to bless the land of cakes." While in Scotland, an event occurred which caused a change in the cabinet: this was the death of lord Londonderry—late lord Castlereagh—who put a period to his own existence. The difficulty in finding a successor to the deceased minister was so great that the king and the ministry were compelled to stifle their resentment towards Mr. Canning, who now became secretary of state, while Mr. Robinson was made chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr. Huskisson president of the board of trade. At the time of lord Londonderry's decease, he was about to join the congress of Verona, and the duke of Wellington was deputed to take his place. His grace nobly endeavoured to stem the despotic acts of the sovereigns assembled, but his efforts were unavailing: they carried out their despotic measures, and Spain, especially, was doomed to feel their tyranny.

627. *Parliamentary affairs—The king's munificence—State of the country—The era of joint-stock schemes commenced, 1823.*—The session of 1823 was barren of any great results, except that certain bills were passed by which government were enabled to employ convicts in hard labour, and the judges were relieved from the obligation of passing sentence of death on certain malefactors, except in case of murder. A large portion of the session was wasted in calling the expenses of

reduced? Other bills passed this session: what objects had they in view? When did the king visit Scotland? What event brought about other changes in the ministry, and who were called to office? On what mission was the duke of Wellington employed this year?

627. Can you recount the principal measures of the session of 1823?



the coronation into question, and in discussing the insolence exhibited by the agents of the ascendant party in Dublin. Lord Wellesley had prohibited the Orange faction from dressing up the statue of king William in College-green, a ceremony which perpetuated animosity, and frequently led to bloodshed. This gave the Orangemen great offence, and when his lordship visited the theatre a bottle was thrown at him from the gallery. Several persons were taken into custody, but no jury could be found to convict them, and hence the matter was investigated in parliament. The result, however, merely showed in what a daring manner juries were packed and the name of justice abused in Ireland. In this session the sum of 150,000*l.* was voted towards the construction of New London Bridge. As his majesty had recently presented a valuable library collected by his father to the nation, parliament voted the sum of 40,000*l.* for the enlargement of the British Museum, to which the library was to be transferred. Such an instance of royal munificence was calculated to benefit not only the period when it was displayed, but to extend its advantages to remote generations. During this year the country appeared to be in a flourishing condition. From the recent measures of the cabinet, commerce and manufactures revived, and, as a natural consequence, agriculture improved. This revival of prosperity, however, gave a dangerous activity to enterprise, and generated a spirit of wild speculation. It was in this year that the era of joint-stock schemes commenced, which resulted in the ruin of many families.

628. *The trade question—Revolt in Demarara—State of the British colonies—East India affairs, 1824.*—With the prosperity of the country the public revenue improved. It had increased so greatly, notwithstanding the recent reductions in taxation, that the chancellor of the exchequer proposed a further repeal of taxes to the amount of more than 1,000,000*l.* Important steps were also taken towards a more unrestricted system of trade. The protecting duties between England and Ireland were abolished; enactments were passed tending to withdraw British silk manufacturers from the protection of laws which prohibited the importation of foreign silks, and all unequal restrictions on the import and export trade of wool

What act of munificence did the king this year display? In what state was the country this year? To what dangerous spirit did revived prosperity give rise?

628. In what state was the public revenue in 1824? To what did this flourishing state of the revenue lead? What measures were adopted for the improvement of trade and commerce? What was



were removed : measures which tended to increase trade and commerce and to benefit the community at large. In this session a revolt which had taken place in Demarara provoked much discussion. The negroes of that island had been led to believe that their freedom had been granted by parliament, and was withheld by the colonial assemblies. This delusion caused an insurrection, and a missionary named Smith was tried by martial law on a charge of exciting the negroes to revolt, and was condemned to death. Smith died in prison before a pardon issued by the privy council could reach Demarara, and Mr. Brougham moved that the court-martial held on him was illegal, and the sentence unjust. This motion was negatived, but it led to beneficial results, for government formed plans for the amelioration of the condition of slaves in the West Indies, and for providing them religious instruction. Disturbances took place this year in our settlements at the Cape of Good Hope, and another part of the great African continent was the scene of tragical events. The administrators on the Gold Coast having taken a part in the quarrels of the natives, and violated the terms of a treaty concluded with the Ashantee monarch, he led a well-appointed army against the British and native forces under Sir Charles MacCarthy, governor of Sierra Leone, and in a battle which ensued Sir Charles was slain and his forces defeated with dreadful carnage. Subsequently the Ashantee monarch sustained several defeats by an army under Colonel Sutherland, and was compelled to desist from hostilities. In many of our other colonies—namely, those of North America, Australia, the Society Islands, the Sandwich Isles, and New Zealand—the most pleasing prospects were unfolded, and a new order of things had arisen which promised to be of great advantage both to the colonies themselves and the mother country. In the East Indies a war broke out this year between the East India Company and the Burmese sovereign, and several battles were fought in which the British were uniformly victorious. The war continued during the next two years, and the British forces penetrated, after several great victories, to Ava, the capital of the Burmese empire. The Burmese monarch then submitted, and a treaty was concluded by which the East India Company obtained several provinces, and a money indemnity for the expenses of the war. Although the British forces did

the nature of a revolt which this year took place in Demarara? In what other colonies did disturbances take place? What colonies were in a prosperous condition? What new war broke out in the East Indies, and what was the final result of that war?



not amount to more than 5,000 men, several large armies of the enemy during this war were almost annihilated.

629. *Measures in Parliament—Great commercial panic, 1825.*

—The opening speech of the session of this year took a pleasing review of all our affairs both foreign and domestic, except those of Ireland. In that country strife and animosity still prevailed. At the close of the last year, indeed, a political engine of extraordinary power was established under the name of the "Catholic Association." This association, the acknowledged leader of which was Mr. O'Connell, a barrister of eminence, extended its correspondence and appointed agents for every Roman catholic parish in the kingdom, and then levied a large revenue, under the denomination of "catholic rent," for its leader's support. These proceedings created alarm in the minds of ministers, and a bill was passed to amend the acts relating to unlawful associations in Ireland; but though the Catholic Association yielded to legal authority and became defunct, it was resuscitated under a different form. Ostensibly regulating itself according to the act passed this session, it disclaimed all political intentions, and under the mask of collecting the "rent" for charitable purposes it pursued its original course with impunity. During the session a committee of inquiry into the state of Ireland was appointed, and Sir Francis Burdett brought forward a plan for the removal of catholic disabilities, but they were not followed by any results affecting the condition of the people. Some important resolutions were passed by the commons, having for their object the extension of free trade; and taxes on various articles, such as hemp, coffee, wines, spirits, cider, &c., were reduced to a large amount. In a former session Mr. Hume had obtained the passing of an act repealing both the statute and common law concerning combinations among workmen; but as this act was found to be attended with mischievous effects, another bill was passed as a substitute for that which had been repealed, making workmen subject to six months' imprisonment if convicted of inducing any man to leave his work by threat or intimidation, or by molesting or in any way obstructing him in his daily labours. A more than ordinary share of the time of the members was this year occupied in the consideration of private bills. So great was the passion for joint-stock companies, and so abundant the capital ready to seek employment in schemes of local improvement, &c., that

629. In what state was Ireland at this period? What measures were passed in Parliament respecting that country? What other measures were passed this session? On what bills was the time of the members



438 petitions for private bills were presented, more than half of which were passed *nem. con*. In the midst of this seeming prosperity a great commercial crisis occurred. The autumn of 1825 was, indeed, an epoch memorable for mercantile embarrassment and social distress. Credit had been pushed to the utmost, and people being unable to meet their engagements became bankrupts. The distress soon reached bankers: some of the country banks stopped payment; and apprehensions springing up with respect to the stability of the London banks, caused such a run upon them that many failed. All the usual channels of credit became stopped up, and the circulation of the country completely deranged. As a measure of relief, government gave orders that one and two pound notes should be issued for country circulation, and the officers of the mint were directed to expedite an extraordinary coinage of sovereigns. Such was the contrast between the commencement and the close of 1825: it commenced in golden prospects of prosperity, it closed amid gloomy shades of adversity,—a change chiefly brought about by the dangerous mania of speculation which had seized upon all classes of society.

630. *A metallic currency established.—The corn laws and free trade—Restoration of forfeited Scotch peerages.—General election, &c., 1826.*—The issue of small notes for the relief of the distress only increased it. Those notes fell chiefly into the hands of the labouring class, and a few of them constituted their whole fortune. When a panic took place, therefore, the poor man hastened to save his little store by withdrawing it from the banker's hands; and as the alarm spread, the more wealthy followed his example, and a sudden run brought with it the downfall of the bank. In this session measures were taken to obviate this evil; no notes under the value of five pounds, after the end of three years, were to be circulated, and they were to be replaced by a metallic currency. Many objections were made to this measure, one of the most curious of which was raised in the lords by the earl of Carnarvon. An actual gold circulation, he said, should be kept as far from our doors as possible, as a return of it would bring back the highwaymen of Bagshot and Hounslow Heath! It was a greater temptation to commit robbery in the case of gold than in the case of paper, because it gave greater facilities for escaping detection. In reply to this objection, lord Liverpool stated that when he was a boy he lost all the money he had in

chiefly occupied? In what state was England at the close of the year? What measures were taken to relieve the distress?

630. What measures were taken for establishing a metallic currency? What curious argument was used against it in the lords? How were



his pocket by a highwayman, but still, with this early association on his mind, he could not help thinking that if danger must revive with a metallic currency, it would have been felt during the last four or five years, for during all that time their lordships had been travelling about, not with notes, but with sovereigns in their pockets! In this session the corn laws were modified: a bill was passed allowing bonded corn to come into the market on payment of ten shillings per quarter, and by another bill government was vested with the power of permitting foreign grain to be imported at a fixed duty, if the harvest should prove deficient. A further impetus was this year given to free trade, although many petitions had been presented against it even by manufacturers themselves: the general impression being that "the untried state of being" should not be tried, lest it should prove fallacious! Further alterations were made in the criminal code by a bill brought in by Mr. Peel to consolidate the various acts which related to offences against property. Acts were also passed for the restoration of five Scotch peerages which had been forfeited by rebellion in the last century. Several acts were also passed for the amelioration of the condition of the people of Ireland, and the great question of catholic emancipation received much attention: a question which was kept alive by numerous petitions presented from different districts and bodies in that country. In this session, also, the law of naturalization in Canada was extended; and an important alteration was introduced into the administration of justice in India, by a bill which regulated juries within the territories of the East India Company. The session closed on the 31st of May in consequence of the near approach to the septennial dissolution of parliament. It was dissolved on the 2nd of June, and a general election took place, in which several scenes of active and individual combat occurred. The chief topics on which candidates were tested were the corn laws and catholic emancipation. In England there was a strong feeling against this measure, but it was in Ireland that the giving or refusing of a vote depended. The demagogues of that country gave themselves up to the carrying of this one point, and they were aided by that powerful band of agitators, the Irish priests. The contest on the Irish hustings was converted into an award of eternal damnation; those who voted for an emancipation candidate were promised the consolations of the church here, and the joys of heaven

the corn laws modified? By whom was free trade opposed, and on what grounds? Can you relate other measures adopted in this session? When did the session close? Of what character was the contest in the



hereafter; whilst those who voted for an anti-catholic were to be excommunicated in this life, and afterwards to enter first into the gloom of purgatory, and then to endure the pains of hell. On the minds of a superstitious people, this trick of political demagogues and priests had its due effect; a large majority pledged to support catholic emancipation was returned: every tie of respect which had hitherto united the catholic tenant to his protestant landlord, gave way to the power of the church. The new parliament met in November, and shortly before the recess the foreign minister announced the intention of interfering in the affairs of Portugal at the request of the authorities of that country, in order to protect its constitution from a native absolutist faction, prompted and aided by the Spanish government. This measure was a popular one, not only within the walls of St. Stephen, but throughout the country. And the prompt decision of government had its due effect. Troops were despatched to Portugal under the command of Sir William Clinton, and their appearance in Portugal was sufficient. The treachery of Ferdinand of Spain gave way to his fears, and the independence of Portugal with its constitution was preserved.

631. *Death of the duke of York—The duke of Wellington commander-in-chief—The catholic question—The corn laws—Dissolution of the ministry—The criminal code—Death of Canning—Lord Goderich prime minister, 1827.*—In the year 1827 a rapid succession of events commenced which produced great political changes. The duke of York, heir presumptive to the throne, died on the 5th of January, upon which his next brother, the duke of Clarence, occupied that position. His royal highness was succeeded as commander-in-chief by the duke of Wellington. The duke of York had been a stern opponent of catholic emancipation, and a recent speech which had fallen from his lips had created in England a strong feeling against the catholics. Lord Liverpool shared in the sentiments of his royal highness, but he was now seriously ill. On the contrary, Mr. Canning, who was now all potent in the cabinet, had for years been the unflinching advocate of emancipation. Circumstances, therefore, seemed favourable to the Roman catholics. At the opening of the session public attention was fixed more eagerly on the subject of catholic eman-

elections this year? What means were used in Ireland to influence the electors, and how did they succeed? For what reason were troops sent to Portugal this year, and what effect had the appearance of the British troops in that country?

631. Whose death occurred in January, 1827? By whom was the duke of York succeeded as commander-in-chief? What causes seemed to



icipation than on any other which promised to occupy the attention of parliament. Petitions against their claim nightly covered the tables of both houses from the protestant community, while, on the other hand, the catholics had got up a monster petition which threatened to outweigh them all. It was on the occasion of the presentation of this petition that the subject was brought prominently before the commons. It was ably and eloquently discussed, but Mr. Peel made such a telling speech against it that the motion binding the house to remove all laws inflicting penalties on his majesty's Roman catholic subjects was rejected. On the 1st of March Mr. Canning introduced the subject of the corn laws in the commons, and several resolutions were passed having for their object the adoption of a scale of duties which should vary in a relative proportion to the state of the country. Lord Liverpool stood pledged to introduce the subject in the lords, but his continued illness prevented him. By the end of March his case became hopeless, and this led to a dissolution of the cabinet. Mr. Canning became prime minister, on which the duke of Wellington, Mr. Peel, and others of his colleagues immediately resigned office. Mr. Canning negotiated with the whigs, and secured the adhesion of several of that party, he himself occupying the two offices of first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. But Mr. Canning soon discovered that his high office was not a bed of roses. "The premiership had for twelve years been a bed of slumber: it now fell into the hands of one who made it a bed of feverish anxiety and bitter wakefulness—George Canning, the first debater, the most dexterous politician, and the happiest wit of the house; the most perplexed, unhappy, and disappointed of ministers." The hostility of the house against the Canning administration was plain and unmistakeable. From the first moment it assumed its functions it was attacked by the most bitter invective and unrelenting opposition. At first Mr. Peel acted with moderation and urbanity, but he quickly changed his tactics, and showed himself Canning's most bitter opponent. The minister declared that he rejoiced to see the standard openly raised, as he always preferred direct hostility to hollow professions or pretended neutrality. But Canning had not strength to stand against his numerous and powerful opponents. He was powerless to carry any measures

favour catholic emancipation? Were the hopes of the catholics realized? What resolutions were passed on the subject of the corn laws? What event led to a change in the ministry? Who became prime minister? Was his administration popular? How was it treated in Parliament?



of importance, and the only acts passed in this session deserving notice emanated from his adversary Mr. Peel. These related to the criminal code: the number of capital offences was considerably diminished, and in many cases a summary mode of proceeding was introduced, which was so far a limitation of trial by jury. The session closed on the 2nd of July, and it was followed by an event which again dismembered the government. Parliamentary warfare and political desertion over-excited a susceptible temperament, and death soon terminated Canning's career at the beautiful seat of the duke of Devonshire at Chiswick, whither he had gone to seek health and tranquillity. He expired in the same room where Charles James Fox had drawn his last breath, and he was buried at the foot of Pitt's tomb in Westminster Abbey. He was succeeded in the administration by lord Goderich, with a ministry composed partly of tories and partly of whigs: an infirm ministry, which saw the year out, but was quickly dissolved at the opening of the succeeding year.

638. *The Goderich ministry dissolved—Duke of Wellington's administration—Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, &c.—Disturbances in Ireland, 1828.*—The foreign policy of Mr. Canning occasioned difficulties with which his successor could not successfully grapple. In the autumn of last year, a combined fleet, English, French, and Russian, sailed into the bay of Navarino under the command of admiral Codrington. This fleet, on the 20th of October, defeated the Turkish and Egyptian fleets, after a furious battle of four hours. The Greeks had long been engaged in a bloody struggle with the Turks for their national liberty, and by this victory their independence was eventually secured. The new kingdom of Greece was added to the map of Europe, with Athens for its capital. The three powers of England, France, and Russia, had combined to settle eastern affairs, but it was never intended by the British government to proceed to the extremity of hostilities. The collision arose somewhat inadvertently, owing to vague instructions having been given to the naval commanders, and it was so far unhappy, that it crippled the power of the Ottoman empire, and placed it more at the mercy of Russia, whose views have ever been directed towards dominion in the East. In England, the battle of Navarino was denounced as an "untoward event," and the tories especially exclaimed

By whose exertions was the criminal code further improved? What effect had political warfare on Mr. Canning? Where did he die, and where was he buried? Who succeeded him in the administration? Of what members was his ministry composed?

632. On what grounds was the Goderich cabinet dissolved? Under



against this aggression on the forces of an ancient ally, as a wanton act of perfidy, and as forwarding the designs of the Russian autocrat. The ministry was paralysed by the event. They were afraid to take a manly line of defence, and were uncertain as to what course they ought to pursue. So great was the difficulty that lord Goderich took the only step he could to escape from the dilemma. He went down to Windsor, laid his difficulties before the king, and resigned. The coalition ministry was dissolved, and it perished, the victim of that want of confidence which is the natural result of new-born friendship, and of want of power and energy in its leader. The duke of Wellington now became premier, and his ministry was composed wholly of tories, the greatest among them being Mr. Peel. Every member of this cabinet stood pledged to refuse the demands of the Catholic Association, and advocated by liberal politicians; but, as will be seen, this ministry consummated that emancipation which they had so long resisted and for which the catholics and the whigs had so long clamoured. In the session of 1828, however, the great question was the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, by which dissenters were excluded from all offices of trust and power, and against whom all the doors of corporations were shut unless they consented to take the sacrament according to the ritual of the church of England. Lord John Russell moved that the house should resolve itself into a committee to take these acts into consideration, and though ministers opposed the motion it was carried by a large majority. By this defeat government had one of two courses to adopt, either to resign their opinions or their places. They chose the former alternative, and government itself now passed a measure for the abolition of the Test and Corporation Acts, adding, by way of security to the established church, a form of declaration which all who accepted office were to take, that they would not, in the exercise of any office that they might fill, exert any power or influence to the injury or subversion of the protestant church as by law established. The repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts was immediately followed by a motion for removing catholic disabilities, and though no distinct resolutions were passed on the subject it was evident that a great change of sentiment was taking place in both houses, and that it would not be long before the question which had so long been agitated would be settled as the whigs and catholics

whom was the new administration formed? What demands were the cabinet pledged to refuse? What noted acts were repealed this session, and by what means was the repeal brought about? In what light was



desired. The assumption of the reins of government by the duke of Wellington was not looked upon in Ireland as favourable to the cause of emancipation. On the contrary, hope fled, and Irish agitation, which had been partially suppressed during the two previous administrations, again revived. The cry of war was raised by its leaders, and they proceeded, aided by the popish priesthood, to re-organize the Catholic Association. The whole country was in a ferment, and the most violent language was used towards the Wellington administration. Ireland, indeed, with a vast population of papists under the control of O'Connell, the priests, and the Catholic Association, was at the close of this year on the very verge of rebellion in order to obtain admission to the imperial legislature for members of the Roman catholics, by a repeal of the excluding enactments. At this time the marquis of Anglesea, who was lord-lieutenant of Ireland, showed himself to be strongly in favour of the catholic claims. So strongly did he express himself on the subject that he was recalled, for which the duke of Wellington was denounced by O'Connell as a madman and an insane pilot directing the almost tottering state. But the marquis of Anglesea knew the noble duke better than O'Connell did. "I know the duke," he remarked: "his mind is made up to emancipate the catholics; and I am recalled, because he would have no one to share his victory." And he was right.

633. *The Catholic question—Its triumph—Disfranchisement of the forty-shilling freeholders—The case of Mr. O'Connell—Affairs in Ireland—Agricultural and commercial distress, 1829.*—The late lord-lieutenant had recommended the Irish people to agitate, and his advice was followed to the very letter. When his successor, the duke of Northumberland, arrived in Dublin, he found agitation pervading the whole country. Protestants and catholics had assumed a defiant attitude towards each other, and there was every prospect of a civil war. From this cause the premier's situation at the opening of the year was one of extreme difficulty. The time had arrived when it became necessary for him to decide on some mode of action: either to determine not to yield, or to grant emancipation, or to retire from the helm of state for a season and permit a whig government to carry the measure. It was soon seen how he meant to act. In the royal speech on the opening of parliament a review of the disqualifying statutes

the Wellington administration looked upon in Ireland? In what condition was that country at the close of this year?

633. In what state did the duke of Northumberland, the new lord



was recommended, with reference to their removal. All doubt upon the subject now vanished. Though taken by surprise, the opponents of the policy of concession organized a formidable resistance, and the country was plunged into a state of excitement nearly as great as that which existed in Ireland. As Mr. Peel had been elected for the university of Oxford as a champion to the protestant cause, he sent in his resignation. He was in hopes of being re-elected, but the excitement in that ancient university was so great that he was rejected. Subsequently he was returned for the borough of Westbury, and it was in that character that he brought forward those measures which for twenty years he had eloquently repudiated as dangerous and ruinous to the best interests of the country, and which even now he was convinced were pregnant with danger to the British constitution. As leader of the house of commons, however, Mr. Peel unfolded the views of ministers, by proposing the admission of Roman catholics to parliament and to office generally, by repealing the obnoxious requirements which excluded them, excepting only the offices of lord-lieutenant of Ireland, lord-chancellor, and keeper or commissioner of the great seal, for which they were to be ineligible. A bill to this effect passed both houses, and received the royal assent. Great opposition was made to it in the commons, but in the lords it met with a far better reception than might have been anticipated from the conservative principles which pervaded that assembly. This seems to have arisen from the manner in which the duke of Wellington put the question before the house. His grace described Ireland as bordering upon civil war, any approach to which he would avoid as the greatest of all calamities, and on that ground chiefly he advocated concession. As a conservative measure, however, ministers passed a bill for the disfranchisement of the forty-shilling freeholders, raising the qualification to ten pounds: a measure which met with no serious opposition either from the whigs or the people of Ireland. It was accepted, indeed, as the price of the inestimable good which it was expected would result from emancipation. Anterior to the passing of the emancipation act Mr. O'Connell had been elected member for Clare, and he posted to London

lieutenant, find Ireland? What effect had the aspect of affairs in Ireland upon the mind of the duke of Wellington? In what manner was his decision to grant emancipation received in England? How was Mr. Peel treated by his constituents at Oxford? In what capacity did he bring forward the measure for emancipation? What were the leading features of that measure? In what light did the duke of Wellington view and advocate the measure? By what bill was the



to take his seat within the walls of St. Stephen's. He expected to do so without taking the oaths which had been abrogated by the recent bill, but as he had been elected *before* the enactment took place, and as he would not take the oath, he was sent back to Ireland to be re-elected. A new writ was ordered, and he was again returned, but the circumstance had a most untoward effect upon his mind. He loaded ministers with the most opprobrious epithets, and from that time to the day of his death he adopted a system of agitation which had for its object the repeal of the union. The catholic relief bill was, indeed, impotent to stem the tide of agitation in Ireland. In the very year in which it passed, the same scenes of violence and outrage were presented as before. The hostile feelings of parties continued; protestants and catholics alike had recourse to organization, and the slightest accident and the most casual collisions produced contentions which generally ended in the shedding of blood. At the close of the year matters had proceeded to such a length that the magistrates expressed an opinion that nothing but a revival of the insurrection act would secure the peace of the country. But this could not be effected, for parliament was not sitting, and so Ireland was left to be rent asunder with the spirit of faction. England, also, this year presented its scenes of lawlessness. Distress prevailed among the agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial classes, and riots took place in London and many of the large manufacturing towns throughout the country. In some places the military were obliged to be called in to restore tranquillity. Yet, lawless as the people were, it was clear that their conduct arose from their miseries. Want of employ was one great cause of the distress which prevailed, but it was aggravated by a deficient harvest and a severe winter, all of which combined to bring the productive classes of the community, and especially those of the lower orders, into a state of abject misery.

634. *State of parties—Parliamentary measures—Death of George IV., 1830.*—Ministers had carried the great question of catholic emancipation, but in doing so they had lost the confidence of a large body of their most faithful adherents. It is true they had gained the seeming support of their old enemies the whigs, but the whigs never contemplated sup-

emancipation act accompanied? What reception did Mr. O'Connell meet with when he proceeded to take his seat in parliament? What effect had that reception upon his mind, and what new system of agitation did he commence? In what condition was Ireland after the passing of the catholic relief bill? What was the state of England at the close of the year, and to what events did it give rise?



porting them in all their measures. They assented to a coalition in parliament for particular purposes; but if ministers wanted that coalition to be permanent, their price was—coalition in office. The noble duke, however, was not disposed to extend to them an equal share of power: his wish was to be reconciled to his friends, and therefore he proudly kept aloof from the whigs; hence, when parliament met, the position of the ministry was unsafe. Still, though deserted by their former friends, and mistrusted by their new adherents, and though assailed on some points by both, through the able leadership of Mr. Peel they managed to keep their position through the session, and to pass some important measures. Among these were a bill for the abolition of capital punishment in cases of forgery, with certain exceptions; the appointment of a committee on the East India Company's charter; a bill for amending the law of libel, and an act for repealing the duty on beer. In this latter measure, ministers conceived that they were legislating for the comforts of the poor, and a large amount of revenue was sacrificed to secure those comforts; but time has shown that it has been the means of extending immorality and crime throughout the country. By the multiplication of beer-houses, the poor man is beset with temptation on every hand, and misery and crime have been the fatal consequences of a measure which was really intended for the public benefit. A reform in parliament was at this time more loudly demanded than ever, but on this point the Wellington administration was inexorable. Several attempts, both in this session and the preceding, were made to amend the representation, but every succeeding attempt proved a failure. As the catholics had been relieved by the ministry, it was deemed that this was a proper opportunity for seeking to remove the civil disabilities affecting Jews. A bill was moved for on that subject by Mr. Grant; but though the arguments in its favour were cogent, the motion was emphatically negatived. Towards the close of the session, the public business was interrupted by the illness of the king. In May he became so greatly debilitated, that a message was sent down to the house, stating that his majesty found it inconvenient and painful to sign with his own hand those public documents which required the sign manual. A bill was therefore passed, allowing the sign manual to be adhibited by a stamp in his majesty's presence: three privy councillors having, previously to its being affixed,

634. In what position was the Wellington administration at the opening of this session? What measures did they pass? What event interrupted the business of the session? When did George IV. die?



signed a memorandum, to be endorsed upon the document, describing its nature and its objects. Towards the end of May a favourable turn of the disorder of his majesty gave rise to a hope of his recovery. But this feeling was soon dispersed. Early in June his end was evidently near, and on the 25th of that month he died. His death excited a less lively interest in the minds of his subjects than commonly follows the decease of English monarchs. For some years he had lived so much retired from his people, that it produced indifference and estrangement. Most people, also, recollected the extravagances of his early life,—extravagances which cost him a large amount of popularity, which he could never recover. Hence, though the people did not rejoice at his death, there was no universal mourning for his loss. Yet, with all his imperfections, George IV. had many redeeming qualities. He neither sought to extend the prerogatives of the crown, nor to curtail the rights of his subjects. He was a munificent patron of literature and the fine arts,—praise which can scarcely be given to any previous monarch of the house of Hanover. These were qualities which should render his name dear to the country. As regent, his name is associated with the most splendid triumphs in the annals of our country: as king, his most unpopular act was the yielding of catholic emancipation, and that was conceded only under the impression that it would conduce to the safety of the British empire.

635. *Notable incidents in this reign unnoticed in the text.*

In November, 1820, Captain Parry returned from his unsuccessful but interesting voyage to the Arctic regions. He reached the 113th degree of west longitude, where he passed one winter in latitude 74. Though he was obliged to give up the object of his expedition, his opinion remained favourable to the theory of a north-west passage into the Pacific: a passage, however, which has not yet been made available, though many heroic attempts have been made by able and enterprising navigators.

In the same year the Astronomical Society was founded, and the colossal head of Memnon from Thebes deposited in the British Museum.

In the year 1821 George IV. gave a striking instance of his liberality and attention to the interests of learning by founding the Royal Society of Literature, not only conferring on this institution the distinction of a charter, but the more solid advantage of 1,000*l.* per annum for pensions to ten honorary members. Premiums were also founded for the encouragement of compositions in prose and verse, and the society, whose records contain a mass of valuable information, from that time to the present has enrolled the most illustrious names in the literary world among its associates and contributors.

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How was his death looked upon by the people? What were the redeeming qualities in his character?



The annals of the year 1822 are distinguished by the opening in November of the Caledonian canal, after a labour of twenty years and an expenditure of 900,000*l*. That stupendous work opens a communication between the eastern and western seas, and enables vessels to avoid the dangerous navigation of the Pentland Frith or Channel.

In the same year a parliamentary grant was made for the important design of publishing the early histories of Great Britain.

In January, 1827, the suspension bridge over the Menai Strait was opened. This stupendous structure was projected by Mr. Telford for the convenience of communication between Great Britain and Ireland. The suspending power of this bridge is calculated at 2,016 tons, and the weight to be suspended 342 tons, leaving a disposable power of 1,674 tons. Next to the road over the Simplon this bridge is considered the most surprising effort of art in Europe.

In 1829 Mr. Peel founded the metropolitan police force, the parent of the organized provincial police, and of the Irish and Scotch constabulary,—a master stroke of policy in the management of the triple empire.

The annals of 1830 were marked by the conflagration of York Minster, that glory of English architecture. Great part of the choir, with the organ, fell a sacrifice to the devouring element. The fire was traced to a man named Martin, who was subsequently tried for the crime and found to be insane. A large subscription was raised for the purpose of restoring the building after the original plan, under the direction of Mr. Smirke. London received additional beauty and convenience from the opening of the New Fleet or Farringdon Market; and of the New Post-office in St. Martin's-le-Grand, one of the finest edifices by which the capital is ornamented.

To this interval also belong the commencement of the Thames Tunnel; the opening of the London University; the foundation of King's College; and the opening of the first of the great family of railways for passenger traffic, uniting the manufacturing metropolis of the country, Manchester, with Liverpool, and forming one of the greatest thoroughfares in the world. The forming of this railway was the commencement of an era of swift transit, which probably has not yet attained its utmost speed.

During this period legislative acts were passed abolishing the ancient custom of burying persons at cross roads who had committed suicide, and the barbarous practice of setting instruments in plantations calculated to destroy human life.

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## WILLIAM IV.

Began to reign June 25th, 1830;—died June 19th, 1837.

636. *Accession of William IV.—Rupture between the ministry and the whigs—Dissolution of parliament—The Wellington administration dissolved—Earl Grey prime minister,*



1830.—On the death of George IV. his next brother, William Henry duke of Clarence, was proclaimed king by the title of William IV. The habits and manners of the new monarch were the very reverse of his predecessor's. He was condescending *to* and even familiar *with* his people, which in a short time rendered him highly popular. No immediate change took place in the government; all the judges and other great officers of the state were reappointed to the places which had by the demise of the crown become vacant, and the services of every member of the cabinet were retained. But it soon became manifest that a change in the administration would take place at no distant date. The whigs had made up their minds not to support the present government any longer, and their old friends had not yet forgiven them for the passing of the act for catholic emancipation. In his opening speech, when parliament met, the king recommended that some provision should be made for carrying on the public service, and accordingly ministers moved in both houses an address simply voting that they *would* make the temporary provision recommended in the royal message. The whigs, however, insisted that it should be done forthwith,—that parliament should continue to sit until a bill was framed and carried, appointing a regency in case the new king, who was advanced in years, should die before the new parliament could meet; the heir presumptive, the infant daughter of the late duke of Kent, the princess Victoria, being a minor. To this end amendments were moved in both houses to the proposition made by government: namely, that the consideration of the address should be postponed to the following day. This gave rise to a discussion which opened the duke's eyes to the fact that all parties but his own were determined to oppose him. On discovering this, ministers and their friends lost their temper, and bitterly inveighed against the "unnatural coalition" which they said was now shown to have taken place between parties opposed to each other in principle. The language used in both houses was vehement and bitter, personal taunts and retorts making up almost the whole sum of the arguments used in the discussion. The amendment was negatived, but it became evident to ministers that the watchword of the whigs would henceforth be "War to the knife!" Parliament was prorogued and dissolved in July, and the general election, which took place in

636. Who succeeded George IV. on the throne? What was the character of William IV.? Did any changes take place on his accession in the ministry? In what position were ministers at the opening of parliament? On what subject did a rupture between parties take place? What spirit characterized the discussions in parliament? When was parliament prorogued and dissolved? What effect had the elections on



the summer, proved to be a stormy one, and to increase the opposition towards the ministry. And this spirit of opposition suddenly gained an addition of strength by a new revolution in France. Through his tyranny Charles X. was driven from his throne, and his descendants were excluded therefrom, and the crown offered to the duke of Orleans. A revolution also took place in Belgium, where a national congress excluded the house of Orange from the throne, and set themselves about the election of a new monarch. These events were hailed by the whigs in England with applause, as the dawning of a new and glorious era in the world's history. Public meetings were held in which resolutions were passed commending the spirit of the Parisians and Belgians in having thus shaken off encroaching despotism. The people of England were called upon to imitate their example to a certain extent: to stand forward, at least, and demand a sweeping measure of parliamentary reform. The excitement was intense, and, as usual, gave rise to outrage. Throughout the country incendiaries wreaked their vengeance on property, covered by the darkness of the night; and bands of men, still more daring, in noonday attacked machinery, and especially threshing machines, which had been recently introduced into the operations of agriculture. So determined were these lawless proceedings that government resolved to quell them by the strong arm of the law. They were aided by the yeomanry and farmers, who, scouring the country, assisted the civil officers in the discovery and apprehension of offenders. It was under these gloomy circumstances that the new parliament met in October for the despatch of business. At its opening parties were precisely in the same position as they had been at the dissolution,—with this difference: that all the elements of opposition had acquired new vigour by the course of events, while new topics had sprung up on which it was evident a trial of strength would take place. The embarrassment of ministers was increased by a domestic occurrence. It had been arranged that the king and queen should honour the lord mayor's feast with their presence, and all London was on tip-toe of expectation to witness the splendid procession. Two days before the celebrated 9th of November, however, the home secretary informed my lord mayor that the visit would be postponed; information having been received that notwithstanding the devoted loyalty of the citizens of London, advantage would be taken to create tumult and confusion, and parties? What foreign events increased the spirit of opposition? To what events did this give rise to in England? When the new parliament met, in what position were parties? On what subject were minis-



thereby the properties and lives of his majesty's subjects would be endangered. This announcement filled the metropolis with doubt and alarm. It was thought that some atrocious conspiracy was on foot, and that the crisis of the constitution and country had at length arrived. The funds fell three per cent., and every one expected that the 9th of November, 1830, would be celebrated not by a civic feast, but by an insurrection. Nevertheless the lord mayor's guests took their seats at his festive board, ate his turtle and drank his claret, and then went home unmolested. The alarm was imaginary, and the ministry who had called up the ghost of fear paid the penalty by a further loss of popularity. From the discussion which took place in parliament on this subject, it was clear that the duke's administration had now received a shock from which it could not recover. A final and successful attack was made upon it on the 15th of November, when ministers were outvoted on the subject of the civil list, the consequence of which was that the duke of Wellington in the lords, and Mr. Peel in the commons, announced on the following day that they had tendered their resignations, and his majesty had accepted them. A new ministry was formed under the auspices of earl Grey, lord Althorpe being appointed chancellor of the exchequer and leader in the house of commons. All the members of this cabinet consisted of whigs, and of former adherents of the deceased premier Canning, except the duke of Richmond, who belonged to the old tory party, and who became postmaster-general. Mr. Brougham, who had taken a prominent part in the opposition to the Wellington administration, was created a peer, and became lord chancellor. The first act of the new ministry was to pass a regency bill, which provided that, in the event of a posthumous child of the present king, her majesty queen Adelaide should be guardian and regent of the kingdom; and that if such an event did *not* occur, then the duchess of Kent was to be guardian and regent, during the minority of her daughter, the princess Victoria, the heiress presumptive to the throne of Great Britain.

637. *The reform question—General election—The reform question renewed—Its rejection by the lords, and the consequences thereof—Coronation of William IV., 1831.*—The administration of earl Grey stood pledged to apply themselves to the reform of the representation: that is, to strengthen and enlarge the democratic portion of the British constitution.

ters defeated, and what was the consequence of this defeat? Who now became prime minister, and from what ranks were the ministry formed? What was the first act of the new ministry?

637. What great measure did earl Grey's administration stand pledged



Accordingly, on the 1st of March, lord John Russell, though not a cabinet minister, brought forward their measure of reform, he being intrusted with it in consideration of his constant and strenuous exertions on that great question. He moved "that leave might be given to bring in a bill to amend the representation of England and Wales," detailing its main provisions to an audience astonished by their comprehensive boldness. This motion gave rise to one of the most exciting conflicts in the annals of our history. The debate on the great change proposed lasted nearly the whole of the session, Sir Robert Peel—for he had now succeeded to a baronetcy—taking the lead in opposition to the measure, by which he retrieved the reputation he had lost with many old allies through yielding catholic emancipation. The measure was generally opposed as too sweeping in its nature, but there were not a few members who considered it not sufficiently extensive. On the second reading of the bill an amendment was moved that it be read that day six months. This was lost by a majority of one only. This was in substance a defeat of ministers, but it was celebrated by the people with illuminations and festive rejoicings. Subsequently a bill of a similar character was brought in to amend the representation of Ireland. This was read a first time, and the house then went into committee on the clauses of the first bill. It was now that the battle of oratory rose to its full height. Every word in every clause was hotly contested, and the opposition became so fierce and formidable that it became evident the measure would not be carried in the present parliament. Ministers now recommended a dissolution, and after the ordnance estimates were passed, on the 10th of May parliament was prorogued, which was followed on the next day by a dissolution. By the people the dissolution of parliament was hailed with demonstrations of joy. Cities, towns, and villages were illuminated as though some mighty achievement had been added to the roll of British history. Those who did not place candles in their windows became objects of persecution by the mob, and in the west end of London serious outrages were committed on the mansions of those members of parliament who had opposed reform. The election of the new parliament took place in the midst of general excitement. The only test by which candidates were tried was their determination to support "the bill, the whole

to carry? When was it brought forward and by whom? To what did lord John Russell's motion give rise? On what grounds was the measure opposed? What was the result of the motion? When was parliament prorogued and dissolved? What was the character of the elections?



bill, and nothing but the bill" which ministers had devised. Candidates were told by the electors that if they would not support it they could not vote for them, as it was the king's bill, and therefore it must pass. The official influence of the ministry was put forth in the most unblushing manner, and especially in Ireland, where the viceregal government interfered directly to ensure the success of reform candidates. Hence the tumult and licence which usually characterize a general election were more than ordinarily rampant and intolerant, and in some instances property and even life were sacrificed to popular excitement. As might be expected, therefore, ministers completely succeeded in obtaining a house of commons fashioned after their own model: a house pledged to implicit obedience to the will of the people, and to carry reform. Parliament met on the 14th of June, and no time was lost in reproducing the measure. Again the battle of argument commenced, but this time ministers found more universal support: the second reading was carried by a majority of 136, and after its clauses had been hotly contested a similar majority carried the bill through its final stage. But the victory was not yet won. The house of lords consisted of a conservative body, and no threats or intimidation could shake their principles. The measure was fully, eloquently, and dispassionately discussed, and on the second reading emphatically rejected. Its rejection by the lords produced an extraordinary sensation throughout the country. Meetings were held in all parts, and riots became the order of the day. In London the mansions of the duke of Wellington and other peers were attacked by the mob, and, but for the timely appearance of the police, would have been sacked and demolished. Similar scenes took place in various parts of the country. In Bristol the episcopal palace, the mansion-house, the excise-office, and a great part of Queen-square fell a sacrifice to the flames, and many warehouses were destroyed by the devouring element. The riot was only quelled by military force. Nearly 100 were killed and wounded, and during the outrage more than 200 were taken prisoners, some few of whom were tried and executed, while others were sentenced to different terms of imprisonment. Partial disturbances occurred at Bath, Coventry, and Worcester, and so great were the fears excited that a proclamation was issued by his ma-

What was the result of the elections? When did the new parliament meet? What was the fate of the reform bill in the commons this session? How was it treated in the lords? What consequences followed the rejection of the bill by the lords? What measures were taken to



jeſty in council exhorting all claſſes to unite in ſuppreſſing the tumults. As the winter advanced, the alarm of the executive government increased. Formidable associations were formed on every hand, and thoſe in London, Birmingham, and Manchester aſſumed ſuch huge proportions that another proclamation was iſſued declaring their illegality, and warning all againſt entering into ſuch combinations. Nor was it in England alone that danger was apprehended. In Ireland there was now a loud and univerſal cry for the repeal of the union, and in ſeveral counties the moſt wanton outrages were committed. That arch-agitator, Mr. O'Connell, and ſome of his accomplices, were apprehended and brought to trial, but though they were convicted of illegal acts they were never brought up for judgment. It was thought that miniſters had made ſome compromise with the agitators, but the ſtate of England and Ireland ſufficiently accounted for their not being puniſhed. Before theſe ſcenes occurred, on the 8th of September his majeſty and his royal conſort were crowned in Weſtmiſter Abbey, on which occaſion they were greeted with hearty cheers by the people. His coronation was diſtinguiſhed by a grant of new honours: three marquises, four earls, and fifteen barons were created. This was in conformity with precedent, but it may be conſidered that theſe acceſſions to the peerage had alſo this object in view; namely, to gain ſupporters in the upper houſe on the great queſtion of reform.

638. *The reform queſtion renewed—Passed by the commons, but meets with difficulties in the lords—Ministers resign and are recalled—The reform bill passed—Its main features—General election—State of Ireland, 1832.*—The battle of reform recommenced in the autumn ſeſſion of 1831, and after another hot conteſt the bill was read a ſecond time by a majority of 162. The houſe went into committee upon its clauses after the Chriſtmas reſeſs, and on the 23rd of March, its main clauses having been preſerved, the bill again paſſed the commons. It was ſent up to the lords, where it was again diſpaſſionately diſcuſſed, and where it now received a ſomewhat better fate. It paſſed the ſecond reading by a majority of nine, eighty-five peers ſigning a proteſt againſt it on the journals of the houſe. In May the lords went into committee on the bill. The lords
- had the power of amending or altering, and it ſoon became manifeſt that if it paſſed their committee it would be but as

prevent inſurrection? When was king William crowned? What act of grace took place on that occaſion?

638. How was the reform bill ſupported in the commons this ſeſſion? What tranſpired in the lords concerning it? What was the



a shadow compared with the substance. Lord Lyndhurst moved that the first and second clauses should be postponed, and after a warm contest his motion was carried: ministers were left in a minority of thirty-nine. On this defeat, earl Grey and the lord chancellor posted to Windsor, and tendered his majesty the alternative of either arming the ministers with the powers they deemed necessary to enable them to carry the bill—namely, a creation of peers—or of accepting their resignation. His majesty deferred his reply till the next day, when he informed earl Grey that he had determined to accept the proffered resignation, rather than have recourse to the only alternative which had been proposed. Ministers now resigned *en masse*, but the difficulty which the king found in forming a new administration was so great and insurmountable that he was under the necessity of renewing his intercourse with his former ministers. Of course they expressed themselves willing to resume office, but only on this condition—that his majesty should create the necessary number of peers which would ensure the triumph of reform, unless some who had opposed the bill would consent to forego their legislative duties when the subject of reform was brought under consideration. Such was the intimation given to the refractory lords: a circular note was sent by the authority of the king to the opposition peers, stating his majesty's wish that they should facilitate the bill by absenting themselves from the house when any important part of the measure to which they could not consent came under discussion. As this request implied that his majesty desired their absence as the only means of avoiding the creation of a number of peers, and as the lords have at all times shown a repugnance to an augmentation of their order to any extent, the majority of the opposition lords absented themselves from parliament: during the remainder of the discussions on the measure not more than thirty or forty attended at a time. The English reform bill, therefore, on the 7th of June, 1832, became law in all its integrity. The king and the lords were equally opposed to it, but both were compelled to bend to the will of the commons. Similar measures were subsequently passed for Scotland and Ireland, and the whole population of the triple kingdom rejoiced at the victory obtained, as though the measure would produce and establish for them an era of enduring prosperity. The main features

result of its defeat? What demand did earl Grey make of the king? Was it conceded? Under what circumstances were ministers recalled to office? What measures were now taken to ensure the triumph of the reform bill? When did it pass? What were the main features of



of the act were as follows :—It totally extinguished fifty-six parliamentary boroughs returning 111 members, where the population, according to the census of 1831, was under 2000. It gave one representative only instead of two to thirty boroughs where according to the same census the population was under 4000 ; and two members were deducted from the four formerly sent from the united boroughs of Weymouth and Melcombe Regis. Altogether 143 members were struck out of the old frame of the representation. Of this disposable number of members sixty-five were given to the counties, by the more populous being empowered to return three or four representatives instead of two ; and new boroughs were created, of which twenty-two containing a population of 25,000 and upwards were to send two members ; and twenty-one containing each 12,000 and upwards were empowered to return one member only. The franchise was enlarged so as to embrace the middle classes generally, tenants of land paying a rental of fifty pounds being added as voters to the freeholders in counties, and ten-pound householders being enfranchised in towns. Such was the bill for which the country had so loudly clamoured, and to obtain which the foundations of society had been shaken to the very centre. It still remains a doubt whether the measure was worth the price it cost ; namely, the disruption of friendship, the loss of life and property, and the agitation and tumult of the whole kingdom. By the English bill of reform it was required that the intended voter should have paid up by the 20th of July all rates and taxes payable in the preceding April in respect of the premises on which he claimed. That period had passed before the prorogation of parliament, and a motion was made to extend the time for payment to the 7th of August, but this was negatived, and hence the non-payers, being numerous, greatly diminished the new constituencies. When, therefore, the general election took place in the autumn, numbers who expected that they would have the privilege of voting, only approached the hustings to be sent away again—non-voters ! The machinery of the act, however, appeared to work more smoothly than had been anticipated, for, generally speaking, in the most populous places the polling was concluded within the two days allowed by the Act. The elections were generally in favour of the ministerial candidates, or of those, at least, professing to hold the same general views and who declared their adherence to a reforming ministry. This the bill? What circumstances prevented many from voting under the enactments of the measure? How did the act work at the general



was more especially the case in England and Scotland, but in Ireland the whigs were not so successful. While the reform bill was in progress, O'Connell denounced the ministry as acting with insult and injustice towards that country in the measure of change meted out to her; and the refusal to abolish the established church in Ireland, which had been discussed during the session, had converted him and his adherents into declared enemies. It had been thought by ministers that the reform bill would conciliate both the agitators and their followers, but in this they were mistaken: it gave rise to new sources of discontent. From the agitation of Irish demagogues the different counties of Ireland presented one scene of growing lawlessness and crime. In his opening speech in parliament the king had recommended the consideration of the tithe question; and construing this into a condemnation of the tax, the Irish people now refused to pay it: and threats, arson, and murder were directed against all who in any way connected themselves with payment or collection of tithes, whether clergyman, proctor, policeman, or payee. Those who paid tithes were denounced as traitors and enemies to their country, and their premises were reduced to ashes and their cattle houghed or scattered over the country. Government filled the disturbed districts with troops and constables, but it was in vain that they endeavoured to restore order. Some were captured and brought to justice, but this only increased the tumult and confusion, for they were considered as martyrs whose cause it was the duty of the populace to avenge; and some were wounded and killed by the military, but this only served to infuriate the multitude. Ireland was at the close of this year a very hotbed of sedition, and ripe to the core for rebellion.

639. *The reformed parliament—Irish coercion bill—Irish church bill—Irish tithe bill—Bank of England charter renewed—Abolition of slavery in the colonies—The factory bill, &c., 1833.*—The first session of the reformed parliament was opened by the king in person on the 5th of February. Now that the excitement created by the question of reform was over, and the passions of men had ceased, the legislature set to work with right good will to discuss and settle many matters of vital importance to the interests of the country. In his speech his majesty had recommended the adoption of

election? What were the results of the elections in England and Scotland? What were the results in Ireland? Can you state any particulars respecting the condition of Ireland at this period?

639. When was the first reformed parliament opened? What was its



extraordinary measures to suppress insubordination in Ireland. The address warmly responded to this recommendation, which Mr. O'Connell denounced as "bloody, brutal, and unconstitutional." But Mr. O'Connell, though heard, was not much heeded. A measure investing the executive with extraordinary powers for the suppression of disturbances was readily passed, which is known in history as the Irish coercion bill. The effect of this measure was such as was desired: the provisions of the act being carried into effect, the list of outrageous offenders against the laws quickly decreased throughout the country. As a measure of redress for the grievances of Ireland, a bill was passed this session for a new arrangement of the revenues of the Irish church, and ten bishoprics were abolished by incorporating them with other sees. Another measure connected with Ireland arose from the difficulty of collecting tithes. By a preceding act government was enabled to advance to the Irish clergy such amount of tithes as had been withheld during the years preceding 1832, and were empowered on making such advances to levy the arrear itself. But this expedient only inflamed the animosity of the tithe-payers, and hence ministers resolved to relinquish the plan. All processes under the existing law were abandoned, and it was enacted that an advance of money should be made to the Irish clergy in order to relieve the occupying tenants from payments on account of arrears of tithes, and that such advance should be paid within a limited time by a land tax chargeable on all land liable to the payment of tithes the owners of which should not have paid the tithes, or composition of tithes, which became due during such years. During this session the charter of the Bank of England expired, but was renewed. The political government of our vast territories in Hindostan was again vested in the East India Company, but the trade of China and India was thrown open to individual enterprise. The glory of the session, however, was the passing of an act for the entire abolition of slavery in the West Indies; 700,000 negroes were rescued from oppression and enfranchised with the blessings of freedom and the rights of men. The sum of 20,000,000*l.* was granted to the proprietors by way of compensation, and the slaves were placed in a state of apprenticeship, which has since expired and left them in a state of freedom.

first measure? What effect had that measure in Ireland? What other measures were passed this session respecting Ireland, and what were their characteristics? What new field for commerce was thrown open by parliament this session? By what other act was this session rendered memorable? How were the slaves liberated, and what compensation was given to the West-Indian proprietors? What other species



This measure had been for a long series of years advocated by the humane Wilberforce, who was now deceased, and other philanthropists, but it was reserved for the first reformed parliament to break the chains of slavery and to proclaim to the sable sons of Africa—

“Thy chains are broken, Africa is free.”

We had no slaves at home, and it was nobly resolved that henceforth there should be none abroad: that wherever Britain's power was felt, mankind should likewise feel her mercy. Another species of slavery was this year also abolished by the passing of an act for the shortening of the hours of labour of children working in factories, and providing for their education, which had been neglected. At first ministers opposed this measure, but, finding that the sense of the house was against them, they at length adopted it, and it was passed under their auspices. Parliament was prorogued on the 25th of August.

640. *The affairs of Ireland—Motion for repeal of the union—Renewal of the Irish coercion bill—Resignation of earl Grey—Poor-law amendment act—Dissolution of the cabinet—Sir Robert Peel prime minister—Dissolution of parliament, 1834.*—Adverting to Ireland in the opening speech of the session in 1834, his majesty remarked that the public tranquillity had been generally observed, and that its state presented a more favourable appearance than at any period during the last year. In the same breath, however, he said that he had seen with feelings of deep regret and just indignation the continuance of attempts to excite the people of that country to demand a repeal of the legislative union, a measure to which he could never give consent. Mr. O'Connell had made it his boast in Ireland that he would bring forward that question in parliament, and, notwithstanding the sentiments he had just heard fall from the lips of the king, he gave notice that he would on an early day move that the house should take the act of union into consideration with a view to its repeal. He made that motion in April, but he addressed a house who had no ears for such an idle proposition, and it was emphatically negatived by a majority of 523 against thirty-eight: the minority, with one exception only, consisting of Irish members. This emphatic rejection of Ireland's darling project had the effect of increasing

of slavery was abolished this session? Under what pressure was the factory bill passed? When was parliament prorogued?

640. In what condition was Ireland at the opening of the session of 1834? What motion was made by Mr. O'Connell, and what was the result of that motion? What effect had its rejection on the Irish peo-



the asperity of the Irish people, which was greatly increased by the discussion of further measures respecting the Irish church and Irish tithe. Hence outrage and crime, which had diminished, again appeared in every part of the country, and the Irish coercion bill, which was to have expired in August, was renewed for their suppression and rendered still more stringent. Some of its provisions aimed directly at those meetings which enabled Irish agitators to work on the ignorance and passions of the misguided multitude: provisions which struck at the root of the evil with a force that made O'Connell and his followers stand aghast with fear. Before this bill was passed, however, the administration of earl Grey was dissolved. The daring character of O'Connell was patent to all the world. To the ministry he should have been an object at least of suspicion, but instead of this Mr. Littleton, the Irish secretary, secretly negotiated with him, soothed him, and even intrusted him with the views and determinations of the government. This was a fatal error, and it involved the fate of the heads of the cabinet. Mr. O'Connell was made acquainted with the provisions of the renewed coercion act, and though he secretly promised ministers to aid them in their design, he openly declaimed against them for endeavouring to annihilate the constitutional rights of Ireland. "The base and atrocious whigs," he exclaimed, "dare to threaten Ireland with slavery, and, under the pretext of suppressing crimes which we hate more than they do, they would deprive Irishmen of that freedom which our virtue and patriotic exertions have wrung from our taskmasters." Mr. Littleton's indiscretion led not only to his own resignation, but to that of earl Grey and lord Althorp, and lord Melbourne now became premier, under whose auspices the renewed coercion bill passed, the operations of which were to cease on the 1st of August, 1835. During the premiership of lord Melbourne in this session an extensive alteration of the poor laws was adopted. The old system of compulsory relief had notoriously fostered pauperism. It had tended not only to destroy the sentiment of independence and self-respect in the minds of the labouring classes, but it had checked habits of industry and forethought, and placed upon society at large crushing pecuniary burdens. Under its working the idle was kept by the industrious, and the pauper had learned to demand that as a right which he should only have

ple? What was the character of the renewed Irish coercion bill? What circumstance brought about the resignation of earl Grey? Who now became prime minister? What great measure was adopted under the Melbourne administration, and to what great change in society did



received as an act of charity. All parties in parliament, therefore, united in a conviction that a change was indispensable, being not more desirable for the rate-paying section of the community than for the poor themselves. An act was therefore passed which had for its object the entire reorganization of the poor laws,—an act which has not only relieved the owners and occupiers of property from heavy burdens, but has tended greatly to raise the moral character of the English peasantry. By peremptorily stopping the practice of out-door relief to the able-bodied, such labourers have become generally desirous of subsisting by their own honest industry. This measure was, in itself, sufficient to signalize the administration under whose auspices it was brought forward. Yet the Melbourne cabinet was inherently weak and incompetent. Before the prorogation of parliament its weakness and vacillation had become transparent, and its want of power had rendered it dependent on O'Connell and his faction. But while the Irish agitators supported ministers they expressed the utmost contempt for them, thus bringing their government further into disrepute. The press also was against them, denouncing their incapacity to carry on government on any fixed principle, and evincing towards them the most inveterate hostility. Some of its members, also, gave high offence to the king, and he availed himself of an opportunity afforded him by the death of earl Spencer to dismiss the whole ministry from his service. The task of forming a new administration was intrusted to sir Robert Peel, who now became premier, the duke of Wellington taking office as secretary of state for foreign affairs. Every man of penetration saw that the new ministry had too much of the old leaven to stand long as the present parliament was constituted. Of this they were, indeed, themselves convinced, and hence on the 30th of December a proclamation was issued dissolving it and convoking a new one to meet on the 5th of February, 1835.

641. *State of parties—The general election—Parliamentary proceedings—Resignation of ministers—Restoration of the Melbourne cabinet, &c., 1835.*—At the opening of this year the state of the political world in England was one of great interest and excitement. By the country at large the dismissal of the Melbourne administration was looked upon with complacency, but its members and partizans felt humiliated, and resolved to leave no means untried to recover their waning influence. What was the characteristic of the Melbourne administration? What events led to its dismissal? Who now became prime minister? When was parliament dissolved, and why?

641. What was the state of parties at the opening of 1835? What



influence. Accordingly they put forth that the dismissal of the ministry was the work of queen Adelaide, and the result of a deep tory plot and complicated tory intrigues. Men did not believe this tale, and then the organs of the party put forth another of a more alarming nature. A dreadful fate, they said, awaited the country from the removal of those who alone had the head to conceive or the courage to undertake the task of saving the public weal, and putting in their place men who would repeal the reform act, impose new taxes, restore and multiply pensions, establish military law, and finally produce civil war! But even this tale only provoked a smile of incredulity; the country refused to be alarmed. One thing, however, was effected: the radicals struck a bargain with the whigs, and came to terms for the purpose of putting down a common enemy. The result of the elections, however, crushed the present hopes of the whig party, for instead of increasing either their numbers or their radical accomplices it brought an addition of more than 100 members to the tories, or, as they were now called, conservatives, exclusive of certain whig reformers who were too high-minded to coalesce with the radicals. At the same time it must be confessed that the conservatives placed their all on the cast of this die. The agents of the Carlton club were scattered throughout the country, and every engine which aristocratic wealth and influence could put in motion was employed in the cause of conservatism. In Scotland the comparative strength of parties remained nearly the same as before, but in Ireland, although the agitators did all they could to gain an accession of radical strength, O'Connell's retinue was somewhat diminished. Parliament met on the 19th of February, and ministers suffered a defeat on the very first subject of discussion, that of the choice of a speaker: Mr. Abercromby being elected in opposition to sir Charles Sutton, who had long filled that important office. This defeat was brought about by the union of O'Connell and "his tail" with the whigs, but as it was probable this union would not be cemented by any lasting bond of friendship ministers still retained office. As, however, upon several subsequent divisions which took place—namely, on the revenues of the Irish church, and other minor matters—ministers were equally unsuccessful, although they had obtained leave to bring in many measures of an important nature, sir Robert Peel and the whole of his cabinet resigned. On their resignation lord Melbourne and all the members of the late cabinet, with

was the general result of the elections? On what subject were ministers defeated? Were they afterwards more successful? What was



the exception of lord Brougham, resumed office, Mr. Spring Rice being chancellor of the exchequer. Matters now ran more smoothly with the Melbourne cabinet. During this session they succeeded in passing two bills of great importance; namely, the reform of the English corporations and the solemnization of the marriages of dissenters in their own chapels. The municipal corporations were remodelled by an act based upon the plan of the reform bill. Those institutions had become antiquated and unsuited to the circumstances of modern times. They were at variance with the principles of representation, inasmuch as they generally consisted of small selected bodies. They were, indeed, so constituted that they had no hold upon public opinion. They were largely perverted to political ends, and the charities in the hands of corporate bodies were universally misapplied. Great partiality also attended the local administration of justice, and hence it was proposed to terminate these abuses, and acquire for municipal corporations the general confidence, by enlarging the constituencies and securing the popular election of municipal officers. The bill also contained provisions for non-incorporated towns to obtain charters of incorporation by petition to the privy council.

642. *The question of Orange lodges, &c.—Act for the commutation of tithe—Re-arrangement of the dioceses of the church of England, &c., 1836.*—Many subjects of moment were discussed in the session of 1836, and the results were not unimportant. In the previous session a fierce attack had been made upon the Irish lodges by Mr. O'Connell and his friends, and early in this year it was renewed. It was but fair that if catholic associations were put down by the strong arm of the law, the protestant associations should be put down likewise. Both were productive of evil, but there was this essential difference between them: that whereas catholic associations were instituted for the purposes of agitation, Orange lodges were professedly constituted for loyal purposes. No enactments for their suppression were deemed necessary, but an address was voted to his majesty praying that he would take such measures as he deemed advisable for the effectual discouragement of Orange lodges, and generally all political societies excluding persons of different faith, using signs and symbols, and acting by associated branches; and his majesty in reply stated that

the result of their non-success? What cabinet was now formed? What measures did the Melbourne administration pass this session? What were the general features of the municipal reform act?

642. What measure was taken this session in reference to Orange



it was his intention to discourage all such societies, and called upon all his subjects to aid him in this determination. A copy of the address and the king's answer were transmitted to the duke of Cumberland, the official head of the Orange societies, and they were forthwith dissolved. A bill was introduced this session for the reform of the Irish municipal corporations, and passed the commons, but its principles were so altered in the lords that on its being sent back to the commons they refused to endorse the alterations, and the measure was abandoned. A similar fate attended a tithe bill for Ireland, which also was passed in the commons, amended by the lords, and then rejected by its originators. This year produced a tithe commutation act for England: for the future a rent charge calculated on the average price of corn was to be paid in lieu of the old method of taking the tenth part of the produce. During this session, also, an act was passed for the better registration of births, marriages, and deaths. Up to this period in English history there had been no registry of births, but only of baptisms; no registry of marriages but such as were performed by ministers of the church of England; and no registry of burials but those in which the service was performed by clergymen of the establishment. And even these were imperfect, inasmuch as the church registry books were often lost or destroyed by the negligence of church officials. It was now therefore enacted that a general registration should be made by persons appointed for that purpose, who were to be responsible to government for the due performance of their duties. This was an act of great importance to the whole community. During this session an act was passed for a rearrangement of the dioceses of the church of England and the incomes of the prelates, and his majesty was empowered by it to create two new bishoprics—those of Ripon and Manchester. Other bills passed this session abolished the secular jurisdiction of bishops, and allowed felon's counsel to address the jury, a right which had not hitherto been acknowledged. In his opening speech the king had announced that Ireland was tranquil. Agitation, however, was still at work: societies and combinations were being formed, and the angry passions of the multitude lashed almost into fury by seditious harangues. The rejection of the municipal reform

lodges in Ireland? What particular measures respecting Ireland failed in this session? What was the nature of the tithe commutation act for England? Why was an act for general registration passed? What measure was adopted respecting the church of England? What new bishoprics were created? Can you name any other bills which passed this session? In what state was Ireland this year? What causes



and Irish tithe bills was made the pretext for renewed agitation, and the whole country rang with denunciations against the Saxon oppressor. Scenes of bloodshed occurred, and the people were called upon, especially, not to desist from seeking the abolition of tithes "by all legal means of redress," which, in reality, meant by unlawful resistance. Yet, while the Irish agitators pretended to seek redress for the grievances of Ireland, they united in resisting a measure which government contemplated for its lasting benefit. This was a system of poor laws for that country, the want of which had been treated by men of all parties as a fertile source of misery, and, by a natural consequence, of turbulence. As this measure would have gone far to have pacified the Irish peasantry, the voices of Irish agitators were everywhere lifted up against it. "The poor laws," said O'Connell, "had done much mischief in England, and would do no good in Ireland: the poor wanted employment and wages, not charity." "To the registries," exclaimed Mr. Shiel, "our attention ought to be exclusively directed. Discuss poor laws at such a moment! At such a moment assemble to listen to dissertations of hours in length on the subtlest questions by which the minds of the acutest and deepest thinkers can be engaged! Away with such infatuation! The registry! the registry! think of nothing but the registry! Ay, and think of it practically and sufficiently! Money, sir! money! It is in politics as in war: everything depends on your chest. Discuss poor laws indeed!" And so these arch-agitators for their own interests denounced that which would have benefited the Irish peasantry, for whose weal they professed to be using their talents within and without the walls of St. Stephen's.

643. *Consideration of the state of Ireland—Question of church-rates—Affairs of Canada, &c.—State of the nation, 1837.*—At this period of our history Irish politics had acquired more importance than ever, and the condition of Ireland was such that statesmen were puzzled as to what measures to adopt for its amendment. In his opening speech of this session his majesty recommended the adoption of such measures as might be deemed necessary for the improvement of the condition of that country, and the house had scarcely met when a petition was presented to it from the Irish protestants setting forth the dangers by which they were surrounded from the effects of agitation. Those dangers, the petitioners asserted, increased agitation in that country? What measure contemplated for the benefit of Ireland was repudiated by Irish agitators, and why?

643. What great question was first considered by parliament in the



were so extreme, and of such a character, that the history of Ireland presented no parallel to it except it might be found in the disastrous reign of James II. Religion, they said, was assailed and property menaced; ministers of the Irish church had been hunted to death; and the people of Ireland had been taught how to practise dishonesty and fraud, and how to withhold legal rights and yet not render themselves amenable to justice. The list of wrongs endured by the protestants as set forth in this petition was almost sufficient to make the house ring with denunciations against the agitators, but unfortunately the debate unfolded one great fact; namely, that the protestants were scarcely a whit behindhand with the catholics in the vigour and perseverance of their agitation. Ireland was, indeed, like a house divided against itself: the catholics menaced the protestants, and the protestants in return menaced the catholics, each party standing in hostile attitude towards the other, and no daysman appearing to effect a reconciliation between them. In order to allay the agitation in Ireland, early in the session ministers again brought in the Irish municipal corporations bill, and it passed the commons with triumphant majorities; but although it passed the second reading in the lords and went into committee, the measure was finally postponed to a more convenient season. A bill for the establishment of a system of poor laws in Ireland was brought in by lord John Russell in the commons and passed a second reading, although it was warmly opposed by O'Connell and the Irish members generally, but in consequence of the demise of the crown that measure was also postponed. The Irish tithe question met with a similar fate, so that the session passed and nothing was done for Ireland: a circumstance which increased the bitterness of the Irish agitators. The question of church-rates at this period occupied the attention of government, and in this session it was warmly discussed; but so many shades of opinion existed in the house on matters relating to the established church that no results followed the debate. At this period the affairs of Canada forced themselves on the attention of the legislature. The house of assembly in Lower Canada had recently carried its opposition to the mother country to such a length that it had refused to vote supplies for carrying on the government of the colony as an integral part of the British empire. Com-

session of 1837? What measures of relief were again brought forward for Ireland, and what were their results? Did any results follow a debate on church-rates? What was the reason? In what state was Canada at this period? What course were the two houses prepared to



missioners had been appointed to inquire into the ground of the complaints which had for some years been alleged by the prevailing party in the legislature of Canada, and by their friends and agents in the British parliament; but the matter had now arrived at the point as to whether the colony should be given up or reduced to obedience by the force of arms. Both houses were prepared to adopt the latter course, but in the mean time certain resolutions were passed of a conciliatory nature, in the hope that the refractory spirit of the Canadian legislature and Canadian people might be modified if not altogether subdued. The line of conduct adopted by ministers both as regards the Canadian colony and foreign nations was in this session the subject of bitter invective by the opposition. This was more especially the case in reference to Spain, where British soldiers were at this time fighting without the protection of the British flag, exposed to all the shame and hardships of a disastrous and disgraceful war. Government, however, refused to interfere in the civil war raging in Spain, although, by suspending the foreign enlistment act, British soldiers were allowed to enlist under the banners of the queen against Don Carlos, who was contending with her for the throne of Spain. The state of the public affairs of the nation was such that Mr. Roebuck moved that the house should resolve itself into a committee on the subject. His grand argument for a committee was, that ministers had not been able to pass any measures of importance during the session, in consequence of the hostility of the lords towards the commons. Mr. Roebuck's motion was negatived without a division, but the discussion to which it gave rise proved this fact: that between the extremes of opposition the whigs might for some time to come retain the reins of power, but at the same time that they were in a position which left them dependent on their opponents, now on the radicals and now on the tories. Had these two sections of the British legislature united on any great question, the whig ministry must have resigned their seals of office.

644. *Illness and death of the king.*—The health of his majesty ever since his accession had in general been good; but in the course of the spring of this year symptoms of decline showed themselves. In June his situation became

adopt in reference to that colony? What measures *were* adopted by parliament? On what question was the line of conduct pursued by ministers denounced by the opposition? On what other question were they arraigned, and why? In what position was the government at this period?

644. When did the health of William IV. begin to fail? How did



one of alarm to his family and the nation; for, although his majesty continued to transact business, it was under such oppressive weakness that it became clear his end was approaching. He felt this himself, and his last days were spent in preparing for eternity. No monarch who had ever sat on the throne of England exhibited more genuine piety than did king William as he approached the grave. And his piety was not that which arose from the fear of death, for his majesty, although he may not have been pious from his youth up, had been a consistent christian. Hence his latter end was peaceful. As his bodily powers failed, his spiritual hope and consolation increased. The good old archbishop of Canterbury, Sutton, was a constant attendant on the bed of the dying monarch, his very presence, when he was too weak to hold converse with him, affording him comfort. At one of his visits, on the 18th of June, the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo, on his grace retiring, the king, crossing his hands upon his breast and inclining his head, exclaimed, "God bless thee, dear, excellent, worthy man! a thousand, thousand thanks!" On the following day his majesty breathed his last: death once more reigned in the palace of the English monarchs. His majesty expired without a groan or a struggle, the queen kneeling at the bedside, and still affectionately holding his hand, unwilling to believe that her royal husband was no more. "Thus expired in the seventy-third year of his age, in firm reliance on the merits of his Redeemer, king William IV., a just and upright king, a forgiving enemy, a sincere friend, and a gracious and indulgent master." Few monarchs of England died more beloved by their subjects than did William IV. All parties acknowledged the kindness and amiability of his disposition, and every one felt that he had, while living, the welfare of his country at heart. Although he had sanctioned measures to which a large section of the community were adverse, yet when he died he had not a personal enemy. All felt that what he did was done from a love of his people's welfare.

645. *Notable incidents in this reign unnoticed in the text.*— In the year 1831 this country was visited by the Asiatic cholera. This frightful malady first appeared on the banks of the Ganges in 1817, and from that time it gradually advanced to the northern shores of Great Britain. It reached those shores in October, and before the close of the year it found its way from Sunderland and Newcastle to

he spend his last days? When did he die? What was his character? In what light was he looked upon by his people?

645. What scourge visited England in 1831? When and where did Asiatic cholera first appear? When did it reach England, and where?



the suburbs of the metropolis. At first its ravages were generally confined to the victims of intemperance, but it soon began to attack patients of all descriptions, and to spread from the capital into the provinces. Scarcely any part of the empire escaped the scourge, although, probably from the habits of the people and the nature of the climate, it was less violent than in any other nations. A board of health was established, which made a daily report of the cases of attack, but was chiefly remarkable for the variety of opinions which it elicited from medical practitioners. The main points controverted were, whether the disease was contagious or non-contagious; whether it was the Indian cholera or a new complaint; whether it was imported or indigenous; or whether it partook of the properties of the plague or was to be regarded as a transient scourge. The ratio of deaths was found to be about one to three of patients attacked. Some places were entirely free from its ravages, which led many to conclude that its propagation was extended by currents in the air. Death often took place in ten or twelve, and generally in eighteen or twenty-four hours after the appearance of well-founded symptoms. From its first appearance on the banks of the Ganges to the time when it left the British shores, tens of thousands were swept away from off the face of the earth by its fearful ravages, and no sure remedy could be found to snatch its victims from the jaws of death.

In 1834, on the recommendation of a committee, a system of steam navigation was adopted, between England and our Indian empire. Two routes were to be used; one communicating with Bombay by the Red Sea, and the other by the Euphrates and the Persian Gulf. By the alternate use of these routes steam communication could be maintained with India during the whole year. The expense of establishing this mode of communication was to be divided between England and India; and it was sound policy to adopt such a measure, as steam navigation was of the utmost importance to the commercial prosperity of both countries. It also gave greater security to our Indian empire.

In 1834 the two houses of parliament were destroyed by fire. A committee was appointed by the commons to consider all matters connected with the rebuilding of those edifices. On their report commissioners were appointed to receive plans, from which they were to select not fewer than three nor more than five to be submitted to the committee. More than ninety plans were sent in, and the commissioners selected four out of the number. The successful competitor was Mr. Barry, but the selection of his plan by the committee gave rise to much angry discussion in the commons, the unsuccessful competitors having brought their complaints before the house by a petition, which was presented by Mr. Hume.

In 1837 the first London railway, the North-Western, was opened to the public, though only for a short distance. The beneficial

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Whither did it extend its ravages? What opinions did medical practitioners form of the scourge? What was the ratio of deaths caused by it? In how many hours generally did death take place in those who were attacked by it? When was steam navigation adopted to India? What routes were adopted, and how were the expenses to be defrayed? What great fire took place in 1834? What measures were adopted for the rebuilding of the houses of parliament? Whose plan was selected for their erection? When was the first London railway



results of this wonderfully rapid mode of travelling are so evident that it would be superfluous to enter into details concerning them. The extension of railways ranks among the greatest improvements that have ever taken place in any age and in any country. By this mode of travelling, cities, towns, and villages are linked together, and a mighty impetus has been given to trade, commerce, and civilization.

The leading features of legislation during the reign of king William have been described in previous pages. Its minor legislation includes the establishment of the central criminal court in the metropolis, the commencement of an annual parliamentary grant for the purposes of education, and the repeal of an act which passed in 1828 enacting that persons convicted of murder should be sentenced immediately, and executed within two days of passing judgment.

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## QUEEN VICTORIA.

Began to reign June 19th, 1837.

646. *The queen's accession—Her message to both houses—Bill for providing the succession to the crown—Alterations in the criminal and civil law—Prorogation and dissolution of parliament—The elections—Opening of the new parliament—The affairs of Canada.*—Alexandrina Victoria, who now succeeded to the British throne, was niece of the late king, and only daughter of the deceased duke of Kent. At the time of her accession she was eighteen years of age, the period fixed upon by parliamentary enactment for the attainment of her majority, and she was, therefore, competent to conduct public affairs without a regency. One effect of the descent of the crown to a female was the separation of it from Hanover; her uncle, Ernest duke of Cumberland, becoming king of that country. On the news of the death of the king, both houses of parliament were summoned to meet, and after the oath of allegiance had been ministered, this message was brought from the queen to the lords:—"Victoria Regina. The queen entertains the fullest confidence that the house of lords will

opened, and what was it named? What has been the effect of railway communication? What minor legislative acts passed in the reign of William IV.?

646. How old was queen Victoria when she ascended the throne? What portion of the British empire was separated from it on her accession? Who became king of Hanover? What was the nature of the



participate in the deep affliction which her majesty feels in the death of the late king, whose constant desire to promote the interests, to maintain the liberties, and to improve the laws and institutions of the country, must ensure for his name and memory the dutiful and affectionate respect of all her majesty's subjects. 'The present state of public business, and the period of the session, when considered in connection with the law which imposes upon her majesty the duty of summoning a new parliament within a limited time, renders it inexpedient, in the judgment of her majesty, that any new measures should be recommended for your adoption, with the exception of such as may be requisite for carrying on the public service from the close of the present session to the meeting of the new parliament.'" Upon this occasion the leaders of all parties in parliament paid a tribute of respect to the deceased monarch by warm encomiums on his sterling and amiable qualities, and addresses of condolence were passed upon the death of the late king, and of congratulation upon her majesty's accession to the throne. According to precedent, a bill for providing for the contingency of another demise of the crown was passed, by which it was enacted that in case of such an event taking place "the archbishop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, the lord treasurer, the president of the council, the lord privy seal, the lord high admiral, and the chief justice of the Queen's Bench at the time being respectively, should act as lords justices to exercise all the powers and authorities of the successor of the crown, as a king would exercise them at present, until his arrival in the kingdom, or until he should otherwise order." Her majesty's accession to the throne was distinguished by extensive alterations both in the criminal and civil law of the country. A series of bills were passed having for their object the abolition in many instances of capital punishment, and a bill was also passed which, by its enactments, greatly simplified the forms to be observed in the execution of wills. Several statutes relating to wills were condensed into this one act, and by it additional securities for the prevention of spurious wills, and additional facilities for making genuine ones, were provided. Parliament was prorogued on the 17th of July, and was immediately afterwards dissolved. It was prorogued by the queen in person, and the age and sex of the youthful sovereign gave a singular and touching interest to the scene, which was greatly heightened

message which the queen sent to parliament? In what manner was the succession to the crown provided for? What alterations took place in criminal and civil law? When was parliament prorogued and dis-



by the silvery tone and unfaltering manner with which she addressed the British senate. At this period the country was in a state of perfect tranquillity. The popularity of the ministers, was, however, fast declining, partly from their mismanagement of the affairs of state, and partly from the position in which their eagerness for power had placed them. But the demise of the crown promised increased stability to that power, and under their new sovereign they looked for a new order of things. Nor did they fail to turn this event to a good account. After the dissolution, ministerial candidates traversed the country, "placarded with her majesty's name," inviting the electors to exhibit their loyalty by supporting her ministers! Ministerial candidates, also, urged some alleged misdeeds of the king of Hanover as a reason for the popular support; imagining that the conduct of one who was an acknowledged leader of the tories might be made use of to their own advantage. Ministers, however, could scarcely maintain their previous position. At the close of the elections, indeed, while in the cities and boroughs the relative strength of parties remained little changed as regards the whigs, in the counties, besides losing twenty-three seats, they failed in fifteen out of sixteen in which they endeavoured to displace the conservatives. As for the radicals, although they did not suffer numerically, many of them lost their seats for important towns, and were driven to the necessity of appearing in the house as nominees for Irish counties and Irish boroughs: a proof of the waning popularity of extreme opinions. In Scotland and Ireland, ministers gained supporters, but while their numbers were not on the whole diminished, there was an evident falling off in quality: their friends were not the representatives of such an extensive part of the population as they had been in the last parliament. Such was the state of parties when the new parliament met on the 20th of November. At its opening the youthful sovereign again appeared before the British senate, winning golden opinions from the matter of, and the manner with which she delivered, her speech. Its close was touching:—"The early age," she said, "at which I am called to the sovereignty of this kingdom renders it a more imperative duty that, under divine Providence, I should place my reliance upon your cordial co-operation, and upon the love and affection of all my people." In the lords

solved? In what state was the country at this period? In what position were ministers? How did the ministerial candidates act at the elections? What was the result of the elections? When did the new parliament meet? What were the closing remarks of the queen's speech?



the address was agreed to *nem. con.*, but in the commons several amendments were moved which provoked warm discussions, clearly showing that ministers would have to battle with all their might to maintain their position. Their old friends, the radicals, also opposed their views and plans in the arrangement of the civil list, but the tories, always loyal in their support of the dignity of the crown, gave them their support, and the queen obtained what was demanded. As the mother of a British queen, also, the duchess of Kent obtained an additional grant of 8,000*l.* a year, raising her annual income to 30,000*l.* The settlement of the civil list left ministers at liberty to move the immediate adjournment of the house; but before they separated, news arrived of a revolt in Canada, and the radicals bitterly assailed the government for the mismanagement of that colony. Martial law had by the sanction of ministers been proclaimed in Canada, and this, it was contended, was the cause of the revolt of the colonists. Their resort to arms under such circumstances was loudly applauded by the radicals, and they augured that Canada, like America, would fight for and obtain their independence, and all through the tyranny and vacillation of the British government. But, as usual, when ministers were at issue with their radical supporters, the conservatives took no prominent part in the debate, and the house adjourned without coming to any conclusion on the matter. Ministers were left to act upon their own responsibility: but the eyes of the conservatives and radicals and the country at large were upon them.

647. *Suspension of the Lower-Canadian constitution—Personal attacks—Successful measures—Abortive motions—Disaffection among the working classes—Suppression of the revolt in Canada—The Precursor Society in Ireland, 1838.*—The revolt in Canada was the first subject brought under notice after the recess, and after a stormy debate and a fierce opposition, a bill was passed for the suspension of the Lower-Canadian constitution. The leading object of this bill was to enable the governor-general and council, on the motion of the governor, to pass any laws which might be considered necessary during the present suspension of the legislature of the province. In addition, also, to the means thus provided for suppressing the insurrection, the bill authorized the governor-general to grant an amnesty. The earl of Durham was chosen by ministers to

On what subject were ministers opposed by the radicals? Before parliament adjourned, what particular news arrived? How was the news received by the house of commons?

647. What measure did parliament adopt in respect to Canada, and what was its leading object? Who was sent as governor to that







unnecessary to remind you of them." Those duties were at this time onerous, for many memorable domestic incidents marked the summer and autumn of 1838. The ignorance prevailing in the rural districts was signally illustrated at Canterbury. A man named Thom, an insane enthusiast, succeeded in inducing a number of the peasantry to believe in his pretensions to exalted rank as knight of Malta, king of Jerusalem, and a kind of second Messiah. Various outrages against the poor-law act were committed at his instigation, and when the military appeared to quell the affray, the commanding officer was shot by the lunatic, who instantly fell himself, with a number of his deluded followers, beneath the fire of the soldiers. In the manufacturing districts, a turbulent spirit displayed itself among the working classes to an alarming extent. Meetings were held in various quarters, and demagogues addressed the assembled multitudes in the most inflammatory language. The causes of this disaffection were the poor laws and the dearness of bread, to remedy which evils the people were taught to ask and clamour for universal suffrage. These meetings were held by torchlight in the open air; a practice which gave a mystery to them well calculated to strike the imagination of the vulgar, and which also gave to the working classes generally, whether employed or unemployed, an opportunity of attending them. The speeches at these meetings were of a character likely to produce mischief, but happily effectual means were taken to restrain the fury of the people, and order was restored. Late in this year the revolt in Canada was suppressed. Although popular, lord Durham failed in his mission to restore peace, and as he had committed an inadvertence in the discharge of his duties which met with parliamentary reproach unpalatable to his high spirit, he resigned his office. He was succeeded by Sir John Colborne, who, by his activity and decisive measures, quickly subdued the rebel Canadians, and many of them were brought to justice. On one occasion he was aided by the Indians. At the Indian village of Caughnawaga, while the Indians were at church, they were informed that a large body of armed men were secreted in their neighbourhood. Rushing from the sacred edifice, they hurried home, seized what arms came to hand, raised the war-whoop, fell upon the enemy, and captured seventy prisoners with scarcely a show of resistance. The

remarkable incident took place at Canterbury? In what condition were the working classes in the autumn of this year? Of what character were the meetings held in the manufacturing districts? By whose exertions was the revolt in Canada suppressed? By whom was sir John Colborne aided? What system of agitation was this year



prisoners were conveyed to Montreal, bound by their own sashes and garters, and when sir John Colborne thanked the chief of the party, he naïvely offered to bring in the scalp of every *habitant* in the vicinity within twenty-four hours. This commission was not given, though during the struggle these Indian warriors greatly aided in reducing the colony to order. Subsequently the union of Lower and Upper Canada was accomplished, the seat of government being first removed from Quebec to Montreal, and afterwards to Toronto, when Mr. Poulett Thompson became governor-general, adopting a tranquillizing policy. In Ireland this year, the famous agitator, O'Connell, devoted his time during the parliamentary recess to agitation. Manifestoes were issued by him from his retreat at Derryvane Abbey, all of which were well calculated to stir up the evil passions of human nature. His grand point of agitation at this period was to obtain a larger number of members to represent Ireland in parliament, that country, in his opinion, not having its fair proportion as compared with England and Scotland. Ireland, he asserted, was entitled to fifty more than she returned, and in order to obtain that number a "Precursor Society" was formed, every member of which was to pay one shilling on his or her enrolment,—for, in order to obtain as many silver shillings as they could, it was ordained by the agitators that men, women, and children might have the privilege of enrolment. The operations of the society were to be conducted by local boards, and its duty was to procure petitions to parliament for "justice to Ireland," for a corporate reform, &c.; to furnish accurate details of the state of the franchise in every parish; and to keep up and extend the registry. Mr. O'Connell said that this was one great experiment more to obtain justice for his country; and if that failed, then he would certainly obtain a repeal of the union, a consummation which he must have known could never be accomplished.

648. *The coronation.*—As the summer of this year advanced the young queen's coronation became the topic of general conversation. So universal was the interest taken in the approaching solemnity, that the people were said to be "coronation mad." The event took place on the 28th of June, and its principal novel feature consisted in the substitution of a procession through the streets of London for the banquet in Westminster Hall. The result of this

carried on in Ireland? What society was formed, and what were its operations?

648. When was the queen Victoria crowned? What was the principal novel feature of the coronation? What description has been



change justified the departure from ancient usage. People of all ages, sexes, conditions, professions, arts, and trades assembled on that day to greet their youthful sovereign. An eye-witness writes of it:—"The earth was alive with men; the habitations in the line of march cast forth their habitants to the balconies or the house-tops. The windows were lifted out of their frames, and the asylum of private life, that sanctuary which our countrymen guard with such traditional jealousy, was on this occasion made accessible to the gaze of the entire world." The ceremony was conducted with the greatest harmony: even marshal Soult, the duke of Dalmatia, who had measured swords with the duke of Wellington, and who had been sent to our court as ambassador extraordinary from the French king, was hailed as he passed along the crowded streets with cordial greetings. All London on that day was in great good humour, and the country responded to its cheerfulness. The coronation was succeeded by a series of fêtes and banquets, and several weeks elapsed before the metropolis had ceased to hold festivals in its remembrance. The cost of Queen Victoria's coronation was about 70,000*l.*, but it was said that the public had paid 200,000*l.* for seats commanding a view of the procession, and that not less than four hundred thousand persons had visited the metropolis to witness the ceremony. Such was the universal enthusiasm exhibited towards the youthful sovereign, which gave promise of a happy and glorious reign.

649. *State of parties at the opening of parliament—Inquiry into the state of Ireland—Debates on Jamaica—Resignation of ministers—Sir Robert Peel fails in forming a new administration—The cabinet reconstructed—Legislative acts—The national petition—Riots at Birmingham, &c.—Prorogation of parliament, 1839.*—At this time ministers, although they possessed the favour of the queen, had lost considerable influence both in the house of commons and among the people. The chief causes of the decline of their popularity were that they had formed too close a connection with the agitator O'Connell, and that their measures were supposed to favour the chartists in England, who were now clamouring for equality. On both these grounds the government was assailed by the conservatives, and many withdrew their support therefrom. An occurrence which took place in

given of the scene? How was the ceremony conducted? How was marshal Soult treated on this occasion? What was the public cost of the ceremony? How much did it cost the public for seats to view it, and how many visitors resorted to London on this occasion?

649. What was the state of parties at the opening of the session of



Ireland on the 1st of January had the effect of showing in what a position ministers were now placed. Within sight of his own house, and in clear daylight, with many people at hand, lord Norbury, a nobleman of most exemplary character both as a man and a landlord, was assassinated, and yet the assassin escaped with impunity. This, combined with other outrages committed in that unhappy country, gave rise to an animated discussion in both houses, in which government was charged with conniving at the system of agitation carried on by O'Connell and his associates; and in the lords a motion was carried against ministers for a select committee of inquiry into the state of Ireland since 1835 with respect to the commission of crime. This motion was looked upon as a direct censure upon government, and its adoption gave great dissatisfaction to ministers. The vote also gave great umbrage to Ireland's agitators, and during the Easter recess Mr. O'Connell crossed St. George's Channel in order to descant upon it, and thereby increase the turbulence of his country. After the recess ministers obtained a counter vote in the commons expressive of confidence in the acts and deeds of the executive government in Ireland during the present administration; but the debate thereon was bitter, and showed that the present cabinet's power rested on a sandy foundation. Nor was it on the affairs of Ireland alone that the acts of the Melbourne administration were called into question. At this period disputes existed between the British government and the Jamaica legislature, arising from a recent act which empowered her majesty in council to make rules for the government of West India prisons, to appoint inspectors, and to regulate various matters of necessary discipline. This was resisted by the assembly in Jamaica as a violation of their rights, and they not only passed resolutions condemnatory of the bills, but resolved to forego the exercise of their legislative functions till they were repealed. In consequence of their disaffection a bill was brought into parliament for the suspension of the existing constitution of Jamaica for five years, which gave rise to such a stormy discussion and palpable defection among their own supporters, that ministers felt themselves called upon to resign office. Sir Robert Peel received authority from her majesty to form a new administration, and a cabinet was formed under his auspices; but he desired to make a

1839? In what state was Ireland, and what discussions took place thereon? On what other subject were the acts of government questioned? What was the result? Who was authorized by the



sweeping change in the queen's household, which her majesty resisted, and as he conceived that his measures would be thwarted by the influence of the whig ladies around the queen, he declined the important trust committed to his hands. The Melbourne cabinet was now reconstructed. After their resumption of office, measures were taken by them for the advancement of education, but they were only on a limited scale, and consequently gave no satisfaction to the people. On this great question, however, every section of the religious community was opposed to each other, and hence it was difficult for ministers to adopt any enlightened and extensive measure for educational purposes. During this session a bill was passed having for its object the healing of the breach existing between the British government and the Jamaica house of assembly, which proved salutary and effectual. Other acts were passed for the better management of prisons, the suppression of the Portuguese slave trade, and for the disposal of waste lands in the colonies. While parliament was sitting, a petition was presented signed by 1,200,000 of the working classes, demanding what was termed "the people's charter," of which the chief provisions were universal suffrage, vote by ballot, annual parliaments, payment of members of parliament for their attendance, and the abolition of the property qualifications. The motion for taking this petition into consideration was rejected, and the labours of the chartist community thereby proved futile. The rejection of this petition was contemporaneous with alarming riots at Birmingham arising out of the proceedings of the chartists. At this time, indeed, the chartists were a formidable body, of which the peaceable and loyal subjects of the queen stood in awe. Their combinations prevailed throughout the country, and their members elected deputies in the most important cities in order to form a national convention. These deputies met in the bull-ring at Birmingham, and various encounters took place between the mob and the police and soldiers. The town was, indeed, exposed to such dangers from the violence of the chartist mob, that it was found necessary to pass certain bills in parliament for the establishment of a more efficient police, and for a sufficient military force to restrain the lawlessness of the chartist community. This was necessary, for the queen to form an administration, and why did he fail? What was the consequence of his failure? What measures were passed on the resumption of office by the Melbourne cabinet? What celebrated petition was this year presented to parliament, and what were its chief provisions? What was the nature of the riots which took place



chartist leaders had long been endeavouring to impress upon the country that they were the strongest party, and that they could carry any plan they pleased into effect without resistance. The measures adopted, however, soon undeceived both them and the people at large, for, on their being carried into effect, order was quickly restored. The session closed on the 27th of August, previous to which ministers were taunted in a severe strain of irony by lord Lyndhurst in the upper house on the failure of their measures. Lord Brougham also contended that the country would be glad to see the conservatives return to office, inasmuch as they would be compelled to grant reforms and would have the power of passing measures of administrative improvement which the present cabinet had neither the means of carrying nor the will to introduce; adding what had often been said of the whigs before,—

“ Whigs are deceivers ever,  
One foot on sea and one on shore,  
To one thing constant never.”

The duke of Wellington closed the discussion by some quiet, yet pungent satire. “ He really did wish,” he said, “ to see a government in the country, and he hoped that Lord Melbourne would govern it in reality for the time to come ! ”

650. *Announcement of the queen's marriage—Her marriage with prince Albert—Want of confidence in ministers—Affairs of China—The Irish municipal corporation bill carried—The regency bill, &c., 1840.*—At the opening of the session of 1840 her majesty announced that she was about to be married to Albert, prince of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha; in consequence of which a bill was passed for the naturalization of his royal highness, and the sum of 30,000*l.* per annum was voted him out of the consolidated fund, to commence on the day of his marriage with the queen, and to continue during life. The marriage took place on the 10th of February amid great rejoicings, and the union has proved one of much mutual happiness, and has greatly conduced to the welfare of the nation. Previous to this auspicious event a resolution was moved in the commons to the effect “ that her majesty's government, as at present constituted, does not possess the confidence of the house.” The chief ground on which the this year in Birmingham, and what measures were taken to restore order? When was parliament prorogued? Previous to the prorogation, on what subject were ministers taunted, and by whom?

650. What interesting announcement did the queen make on opening the session of 1840? What followed this announcement? When was the queen married? On what ground was a motion of want of



motion rested was the disturbed state of the country, a state which was ascribed to the prevailing system of agitation which ministers were said to have fostered during the two preceding years. At this time, in addition to the riots at Birmingham and the disturbed state of Ireland, there had been a serious riot at Newport. An immense multitude had gathered from the mines and collieries in its neighbourhood, and had attacked that town with great ferocity. The rioters, however, showed more discretion than valour, for they were easily dispersed by a single company of soldiers, a few constables, and a single mayor. Three of the ringleaders—Frost, Williams, and Jones—were captured and tried for treason. They received sentence of death, but the penalty of their guilt was commuted to transportation for life. It was not just to charge ministers with being the abettors of these rebel bands or of fostering agitation, although it was asserted that government had placed Mr. O'Connell's family and connections in places of emolument, and that he himself had been received as a guest at the lord-lieutenant's table at his viceregal seat in Dublin! Nevertheless the idea had numerous supporters, and it was with difficulty that ministers rebutted the charge and obtained a majority against the motion, which, if it had been carried, must have led to their resignation. Much angry discussion took place this year on the affairs of China. During the year 1839 a serious collision had taken place between the Chinese authorities and the British subjects at Canton. This led to hostilities. The British captured Chusan, and thus for the first time the British arms wrested from the monarch of that vast empire a portion of his dominions. The dispute which led to these hostilities arose out of the contraband traffic in opium. That pernicious article had been prohibited from being introduced into China by the Chinese government; and an imperial commissioner had demanded that every particle of it should be delivered up to the Chinese authorities and destroyed. This demand was not complied with, and the refusal gave rise to a series of hostilities which led the British government to interfere, and to engage in war with the Chinese empire. This was a vulnerable point on which the opposition

confidence in ministers moved? What was the nature of the riot at Newport? How was it quelled? What leaders were taken, and how were they punished? How was the motion of want of confidence supported, and what was the result? On what other matters were they attacked? What led to hostilities in China? What portion of China was captured by the British? In what way were ministers attacked on this subject, and what resulted therefrom? What measures were



deemed they would make an attack with some prospect of success. The policy of government was loudly condemned on all sides, and a series of condemnatory resolutions were moved in parliament, which were only negatived by a small majority. So harassed and weak, indeed, was the government this session, that very few measures were brought forward by them. They were enabled, however, this year to pass the long-suspended Irish municipal corporation bill, which received several amendments at the hands of the lords; a bill for the union of the two Canadas, alluded to in a previous page; and a bill appointing his royal highness prince Albert regent in the possible event of her majesty's decease. These were the only fruits of the session of 1840 of any importance, and the session closed on the 11th of August. Like several preceding sessions, it was signalized more by wordy warfare than by legislation, for which at all times the British parliament is convened, and for which its members are elected as their representatives by the British nation!

651. *Ministerial difficulties—Motion of want of confidence carried—Prorogation and dissolution of parliament—General election—Meeting of the new house of commons—Resignation of ministers—Sir Robert Peel prime minister—Bill for the better administration of justice in the court of chancery—Settlement of the differences with China—An important treaty respecting the slave trade, 1841.*—Ministerial difficulties increased. In the autumn of 1840 important military operations took place on the coast of Syria, their object being to maintain the integrity of the Ottoman empire against Mehemet Ali, the pasha of Egypt, who had renounced allegiance to the sultan and made himself master of Syria. A naval and land force captured Beyrout and Sidon, and Acre was bombarded by commodore Napier under Admiral Stopford, and reduced to ashes. By these vigorous measures Mehemet Ali was compelled to evacuate Syria, restore the Turkish fleet which had gone over to him, and consent to hold Egypt as an hereditary fief of the sublime Porte. A vote of thanks was passed in both houses to the officers engaged in this expedition, but at the same time the foreign policy of ministers was loudly condemned, especially as the war in Syria had caused a rupture with France. The weakness of ministers, however, became more palpable to the house and the country

passed this session? When did the session close, and what was its chief characteristic?

651. Can you relate what operations took place on the coast of Syria in the autumn of 1840? What was their result? On what motions were ministers defeated? How did ministers act on the adoption of



on several motions being made relative to the registration of voters in Ireland &c., all of which were negatived. Their defeats were followed up by a motion moved by sir Robert Peel to this effect: "That her majesty's ministers do not sufficiently possess the confidence of the house of commons to enable them to carry through the house measures which they deem of essential importance to the public welfare; and that their continuance in office under such circumstances is at variance with the spirit of the constitution." This resolution was adopted, but ministers still clung to office. Instead of resigning, they dissolved parliament and made an appeal to the country by a general election. By this appeal they hoped to gather strength, and strenuous efforts were made to enlist the popular feeling on their behalf: their watchword being "anti-monopoly," in opposition to the conservatives, who at this period were stern antagonists to free trade. But this cry of the whigs did not succeed: even the city of London, which had hitherto returned four liberals, now returned only two, who were coupled with two conservatives. In the counties the elections everywhere went against the ministry, and in the towns and manufacturing districts the cry of "low wages" was raised to that of "cheap bread" with telling effect. That the results of the election were unfavourable to ministers was seen at the opening of the new parliament, when an amendment to the address, which represented that her majesty's ministers should enjoy the confidence of the country, which confidence was not possessed by the present administration, was carried by a large majority in both houses. In reply, her majesty stated that, being ever anxious to listen to the advice of her parliament, she would take immediate steps for the formation of a new cabinet, and sir Robert Peel was charged with the task. This time he was successful, the changes extending to the queen's household which had before been denied. The principal members of the new government were the duke of Wellington, who presided in the lords; lord Lyndhurst, who became lord chancellor; the duke of Buckingham, privy seal; sir James Graham, home secretary; earl of Aberdeen, foreign secretary; lord Stanley, colonial secretary; earl of Haddington, first lord of the admiralty; lord Ellenborough, president of the board of control; earl of Ripon, president of the board of trade; sir H. Hardinge, secretary-at-

the motion of want of confidence in them? By what means did they seek to gather strength in the elections? Did they succeed? On what subject were they defeated in the new parliament? What followed their defeat? Who were the members of the new cabinet? What



war; sir E. Knatchbull, treasurer of the navy and paymaster of the forces; and lord Lowther, postmaster-general. Every member of the new government was re-elected by his constituents, and the house re-assembled on the 16th of September. Ministers were pressed to make a disclosure of the line of policy they intended to adopt, but sir Robert Peel naïvely replied, that as he and his colleagues had been called upon to take a share in the embarrassments in which the finances and state of the country had been involved, it was necessary that they should have time to mature the plans required for their relief. The only measures, therefore, brought forward this session of any importance by the new ministry were for the better administration of justice in the court of chancery, and for the continuance of the new poor-law commission which had been adopted by the preceding parliament. The session closed on the 7th of October. At the close of this year the differences which had arisen between the courts of Great Britain and the Chinese empire were for a time adjusted. Further hostilities had taken place, and all the forts surrounding Canton had been captured, when the Chinese emperor, who had affected to look upon the English as "dogs and sheep in their dispositions," and who had declared that "both gods and men were indignant at their conduct," purchased peace by indemnification. The island and harbour of Hong Kong were ceded to the British; an indemnity of 6,000,000 dollars was to be paid to the British government; and the trade and commerce between the two countries, which had been stopped, were to be renewed. This year an important treaty was signed in London between France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and England, whereby the former powers agreed to adopt the English laws relative to the slave trade. This treaty was signed in December under the auspices of sir Robert Peel's cabinet.

652. *The corn laws—The income-tax—Alterations in the tariff—Bill for restraining the employment of women and children in mines and collieries—Bill for her majesty's protection—The poor-law commission renewed—Reform of the bankruptcy and lunacy laws—The great chartist petition—Prorogation of parliament—Final treaty with China—War with the Affghans in the East Indies, 1842.*—The session of 1842 was opened under circumstances of unusual splendour, occasioned by the presence of the king of Prussia, who had arrived in England in order to stand sponsor to her majesty's first-

measures were passed this session by sir Robert Peel's administration? How were the differences between England and China settled? What important treaty was signed in London at the close of this year?

652. Under what auspicious circumstances was the session of 1842



born son—the prince of Wales. It proved also to be a memorable session as regards legislation. Few men possessed a more comprehensive and practical mind than sir Robert Peel, and he brought all his vast mental powers to bear upon the wants of his country. True he was not desirous of making sweeping changes in the constitution, but he was ever ready to bring forward measures which he deemed necessary to enhance the glory and increase the prosperity of the British nation. He was a conservative statesman, but his views were sound and enlightened. The corn laws had engaged the attention of parliament for several years, and there were many members who were desirous of sweeping them away from the statute-book for ever. Sir Robert Peel did not entertain such an extreme view of the question, but a new corn law on the principle of a graduated scale was this year proposed by him, which was adopted. All the existing duties were greatly lowered by this bill, and hence the protection to the home grower was considerably decreased. Many objections were made to the sliding scale in both houses, but the bill passed by considerable majorities. The next important measure passed was an income-tax bill. All persons having an income of more than 150*l.* per annum were subjected to a tax of sevenpence in the pound. Property was also taxed to the same amount. This impost met with great opposition, and several motions were made for the purpose of either altering it or getting rid of it, but the measure was finally adopted. Its operations were to cease in three years, but it has been renewed from time to time with additions or diminutions according to the wants of the exchequer, and the income-tax still forms an important item in the state revenues. The adoption of this measure was followed by an extensive alteration in the tariff or customs duties. The duties on numerous articles of trade and commerce were either greatly reduced or wholly repealed; while other foreign articles hitherto prohibited from entering the country were to be henceforth admitted on payment of a duty not exceeding twenty per cent. This “customs act” was an enlightened measure, which has proved of the greatest benefit to the whole community. Another important measure passed this session had for its humane object the restraining of the employment of children in mines and collieries, which had led to great moral degradation and much human suffering. While parliament was sitting, an insane person named

commenced? What was its character as regards legislation? What alterations took place in the corn laws? What was the nature of the income-tax bill passed this session? What alterations were made in the customs duties? What other bills were passed this session? What



Bean made an attempt upon her majesty's life, and a bill was passed for the protection of her majesty, by which it was provided that any one attempting to injure or even alarm her should be subject to transportation for a term not exceeding seven years. Bills were also passed this session renewing the poor-law commission for five years, and forming districts for the purposes of education, &c., and for the reform of the bankruptcy and lunacy laws. At this time the country was suffering from a depression and stagnation of trade, which gave rise to a warm debate in the commons; but the most striking shape in which the grievances of the working classes presented themselves to the notice of the legislature was the presentation of a petition, which for bulk and signature was unparalleled in the history of parliament. It required sixteen men to carry it, and was so large that in order to effect its entrance into the door of the house of commons it had to be divided into sections. The signatures to it exceeded 3,000,000, but half of these, it was acknowledged by Mr. Duncombe, who presented it, were the signatures of youths and females. Its prayer was for the enactment of the great constitutional changes which formed the "six points" of the chartist creed, to which was added a demand for the abolition of all kinds of monopolies. Mr. Duncombe moved that the petitioners be heard at the bar of the house by themselves, their counsel, or the agents, in support of the allegations contained in this monster petition, but his motion was emphatically negatived. Like most other petitions presented to the house—though startling in bulk and the number of the signatures attached thereto—it was unheeded. This long and important session closed on the 12th of August, the queen proroguing it in person. Hostilities had been renewed with China, but in this year the war was finally concluded. A treaty was signed by which the Chinese engaged to pay 21,000,000 dollars, and by which several ports were to be opened to British merchants. The islands of Chusan and Kalangsoo were to be held by the British till the money payments were made and arrangements for opening the ports completed. In the preceding year a war had been commenced with the Affghans in the East Indies, and the British arms had suffered several reverses. This year, however, they were everywhere victorious. Several Affghan fortresses were stormed, and some of them levelled with the dust, while thousands of their troops were slain and

celebrated petition was this year presented to parliament? What treaty was this year signed with China? What war was carried on in the East Indies, and with what success?



their country devastated. The Affghans had for several centuries been hostile to the British rule in India, but when our troops evacuated their country they left behind them a name which still inspires that people with terror. The British flag was again planted on the heights at Cabul; but its supremacy having been restored, the army was wisely withdrawn: the rebel chiefs were reduced to complete submission.

653. *Opening of parliament—National distress—The subject of education—Church extension—Law reform—The state of Ireland—Riots in Wales—War in the East Indies, 1843.*—Parliament was opened this year by commission on the 2nd of February. Allusion was made in the royal speech to the great distress which pervaded the country. In every branch of trade and industry there was great depression, which was attributed by some to the working of the new tariff, and by others to a groundless panic occasioned by that measure. There could be no doubt that distress did universally prevail, as the consumption of articles which contributed in a large proportion to the public revenue was greatly diminished. In one quarter only the decrease in the excise, stamps, customs, and taxes amounted to 1,379,057*l.*, which was equivalent to a yearly deficiency of more than five millions. The distress gave rise to various opinions as to the remedies to be applied for its relief. Some advocated the repeal of the corn laws; some threw the blame upon the income-tax and the financial measures of government; some attributed the distress to the poor laws; and some pointed to emigration as the natural safety-valve and outlet for the pressure of a too rapidly increasing population. All these subjects were discussed at length in both houses of parliament, but no practical results issued from the discussion. A warm and lengthened debate, also, took place on a measure brought forward by government for the education of the poor, but it met with such stern and unrelenting opposition from the dissenting and Roman catholic sections of the community, that though on the whole the plan was an enlightened one, and calculated to benefit the people at large, it was abandoned. The best tribute that could possibly be paid to it was paid by lord Melbourne, who on its abandonment remarked: "I have only, for one, to say that I deeply regret the sudden termination of a measure so worthy in itself, and so much desired by a large portion of the community." A bill for church extension met with more success. An act was passed for the endow-

653. When was parliament opened in 1843? In what state was England at that period? To what causes was the distress attributed, and how was it proved? How was the bill for the education of the poor defeated? What measures were taken for church extension? What was



ment of additional churches and the augmentation of small livings, the funds for which purposes were to be derived in part from queen Anne's bounty, and in part from the revenues of certain bishoprics, cathedrals, and other ecclesiastical establishments. There had recently been a great secession in the church of Scotland, and a bill was passed this session having for its object the removal of all doubts respecting the admission of ministers to benefices: the question of patronage having been the cause of the ecclesiastical controversy existing north of the Tweed, and of the secessions which had occurred. Several reforms in the law were made this session, the most important producing great changes in the registration act and in the law relating to defamation and libel. Parliament was prorogued on the 24th of August, on which occasion her majesty alluded in emphatic language to the agitation which prevailed in Ireland for the repeal of the union, and to the lawless combinations and commotions which existed in some districts of Wales. In April O'Connell had issued this announcement, "that 1843 is and shall be the great repeal year," and had promised that in September he would give his deluded followers, "as a new year's gift, a parliament in College-green." In order to be enabled to fulfil this announcement and promise, meetings called monster meetings were held throughout the country. So bold did the agitators become, that government at length resolved to interfere—the arch-agitator and his coadjutors were arrested on charges of conspiracy, sedition, and unlawful assemblage. Their trial took place in the succeeding year, when they were fined and sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment, but their sentence was soon after reversed by parliament, and they were liberated. Their arrest and conviction, however, had the effect of greatly lowering the tone of their agitation; from this time, indeed, the cry for the repeal of the union was only a dying echo faintly heard from a safe distance. It resembled the low murmurs of distant winds after a storm that has threatened to shake the earth to its very foundations. The commotion in Wales was of a different character to that in Ireland: it was a war against turnpike-gates and the vexatious tolls to which the Welsh peasantry had long been subjected. The toll-gates were everywhere demolished, and no sooner were they re-erected than they were again destroyed. The disturbances which took place were termed "Rebecca

the state of the Scotch church at this period? What act was passed in respect to that church? What other measures were passed this session? When was parliament prorogued? In what state was Ireland at that time? By what means was the agitation in that country quelled? What was the nature of the riots which this year took place



riots : " a title derived from a promise in the book of Genesis respecting the children of Rebecca, that they should respect the gates of their adversaries. The leaders of these riots commonly appeared well mounted and disguised as women, and their movements were so rapid that the troops, yeomanry, and police were baffled in their attempts to arrest them. The rioters collected suddenly at given signals by rockets or bonfires on the hills, and having effected their purpose, they dispersed with astonishing alacrity. Having destroyed all the gates, the rioters became incendiaries, and their proceedings were only terminated by the interference of government, which, while it adopted measures for punishing the offenders, appointed a commission to remedy grievances in the Welsh turnpike laws. During this year another war broke out in the East Indies. Discovering that the ameers of Sind were preparing to attack the British, sir Charles Napier was sent against them, and a great battle was fought at Meeanee, the result of which was, that the six ameers who governed that country were captured, and the whole of Sind was annexed to British India. In the course of this year, likewise, the British troops gained two decisive victories over the Mahratta forces, which had rebelled against the maharaja Jyajee Rao Scindia. The consequence of these victories was the submission of the Mahratta durbar to demands previously made by the Indian government, and the establishment of the maharaja on the throne.

654. *Legislation for Ireland—Restrictions on labour in factories—Sugar duties bill—Bank charter and banking regulations—Dissenters chapels bill—Miscellaneous measures, 1844.*

—Now that the storm of agitation was hushed in Ireland government proceeded to legislate for the benefit of its people. All the early acts of this session referred to that country. Thus a bill was passed entitled "Irish charitable trusts bill," which had for its object the making of a provision for the better security and regulation of moneys settled upon charitable and religious trusts. Even Mr. O'Connell, who had been taught wisdom by adversity and had become a somewhat sober legislator, expressed himself in favour of this measure. Another bill was also passed this session which abolished a number of penal acts for the most part obsolete, but still retained in the Irish statute-book : a measure at once enlight-

in Wales? What means were adopted for their suppression? What war took place this year in the East Indies? What was the result of this war? What other victories were this year obtained in the East Indies, and what were *their* results?

654. What acts were passed this session in reference to Ireland?



ened and conciliatory. A discussion took place this session on the subject of Irish policy, which was protracted for nine evenings, but it ended only in argument, in which great eloquence was displayed on both sides of the question. On the motion of Sir James Graham a bill was passed for the regulation of labour in factories, by which children of a tender age were only to be permitted to work six hours and a half in the day, that they might have time for the purposes of education. Another act passed this session permitted sugar not being the produce of slave labour to be imported into the country at diminished duties : a measure which was sternly opposed in both houses, but without effect. The great measure of the session was an act for the regulation of the bank of England and the administration of banking concerns in general, by which a gold standard of money was established : the makers of promissory notes were not to issue them unless they were able to pay on demand the same amount in solid gold. The engagement of a maker of a promissory note, said Sir Robert Peel, was to pay on demand a definite amount of that metal unalloyed, and parliament unanimously endorsed his definition : thus sweeping away a vague notion which had become general, that a pound was not a pound, but merely an abstraction. A further alteration was made this session in the poor-law amendment act, which had for its grand object the preservation of morality among the poor : an enactment loudly demanded by the prevailing immorality which existed among that important section of the community. Other acts passed this session had for their objects the confirmation of the possession of religious endowments in the hands of dissenters, on which there had recently been much vexatious litigation, and the better regulation of railways and joint-stock companies. It was in this session, also, that the entire system of turnpike-road management in Wales was remodelled, the leading principle of the act for which was the consolidation of trusts, the debts of those existing being paid off by a system of arbitration conducted by three commissioners with moneys lent by the treasury to be repaid by rates of the several counties. The session closed on the 5th of September : a session which was signalized by an addition to the statute-book of measures

What was the character of sir James Graham's factory bill? What was the nature of the sugar bill passed this session? What was the great measure of the session? What have you read about that bill? What further alteration took place in the poor-law amendment act? Can you relate what other acts passed this session? When was parliament prorogued, and for what was it signalized?



conceived in a judicious spirit of reform admirably suited to the wants and temper of society.

655. *Retention of the income-tax—Maynooth improvement bill—Academical education in Ireland—Miscellaneous measures—War with the Sikhs in the East Indies, &c., 1845.*—The income-tax imposed in 1842 was to have ceased this year, but, contrary to the expectations and wishes of the people, it was renewed. At the same time a great reduction of taxation on articles of consumption was made, and the duty on all articles of export was abolished. The retention of the income-tax was warmly opposed in both houses, and several amendments were proposed, but they were all rejected and the bill passed, though only with small majorities. Early in the session a measure passed for improving and increasing the grant to Maynooth college for the education of the Roman catholic priesthood. It was apprehended by many that the endowment of the Roman catholic hierarchy in Ireland would involve the rapid downfall of the established church in that country, if not in England itself, and this bill therefore met with great opposition. No exertions were spared to frustrate the plans of government. Petitions against the grant were presented from all parts of the country, and their prayer was ably seconded by many members in both houses, but the bill passed by large majorities. Sir Robert Peel, who proposed the measure, augured from it happy days for the future to both countries,—days when every pulse throughout the empire would be found to beat in harmonious union : an anticipation which has not been realized. Another measure passed this session, which had for its object the extension of academical education in Ireland, met with even greater opposition than the Maynooth improvement bill. Protestants and Romanists with one voice denounced it as “a gigantic scheme of godless education.” The bill simply provided for a secular education, and hence it was fairly open to this grave charge ; for education without religious instruction must ever be considered incomplete and unsatisfactory. Fears were entertained that such a precedent might extend to the English universities, and hence the measure was highly unpopular throughout the country. Nor was it less unpopular in Ireland. The bill had been brought in to conciliate the Roman catholic population in that country, but instead of this it only increased their asperities. By the Irish members it was denounced as a measure for political

655. What obnoxious impost was this year renewed ? On what articles were taxes reduced, and what duty was abolished ? What bills were passed in reference to Ireland, and on what grounds were they opposed ?



purposes, and government was warned that if they intended it as a message of peace it would prove a failure. Such was the language used by Mr. Sheil, who was now the leading Irish member in the house of commons—Mr. O'Connell having retired from the stage of politics and gone to end his days in a foreign land. Alluding to Mr. Sheil's declaration, and under the impression that it was a hopeless task to legislate for the peace of Ireland, sir Robert Peel remarked:—"See how unavailing all attempts are to conciliate the Roman catholics of Ireland! Regardless of the warnings, the feelings, and the fears of their friends, ministers had hoped, by proposing certain measures, that they would make an impression on the catholic mind; but instead of this the leading Roman catholic member gets up and declares that unless they went ten times as far as they had yet gone they would have an insurrection in Ireland." The bill was not grand enough in its ideas for the Irish members, for they felt that the groves of the new academies raised by its operations would appear stunted and dwarfed when compared with the rich luxuriance of the gardens of Trinity college. Among the minor bills of this session, one relieved the Jews from certain tests which had previously been required from them upon their election to municipal offices; a second regulated juvenile labour in calico-print works; a third provided for the better care of lunatics; a fourth regulated banking in Scotland and Ireland on principles similar to those of the bank charter of England; and a fifth facilitated the enclosure of commons in England and Wales. As had become a common practice of late years, the business of the session was closed with a critical review of its results, which practice generally only led to idle and angry discussion. Parliament was prorogued on the 9th of August by the queen in person. At that time peace prevailed throughout her majesty's dominions. Towards the close of the year, however, war again broke out in the East Indies. The Anglo-Indian dominions on the left bank of the Sutlej were suddenly invaded by a Sikh army in great force. This invasion was considered as a formal declaration of war on the part of the Lahore government, and the governor-general of India, sir Henry Hardinge, instantly took measures against the Punjaub government as a hostile state. On crossing the Sutlej the Sikhs invested Ferozepore

For what particular purpose was the academical education bill proposed? Did it answer the purpose intended? Who was now the leading Irish member in the commons, and what had become of Mr. O'Connell? Can you relate what minor measures were adopted this session? When did the session close? What war broke out this year in the East Indies? What were the operations and results of this war? What



on one side, and took up an entrenched position at the village of Ferozeshah, about ten miles in advance of Ferozepore. A terrible battle was fought at Moodkee, in which the British obtained a complete victory: the Sikhs were defeated with great slaughter and driven across the Sutlej with the loss of the whole of their artillery. Early in the next year the British marched forward to Lahore, when terms of peace were agreed on; one of the stipulations being the disbandment of the Sikh army. Earlier in the year sir Charles Napier reduced the mountain tribes on the right bank of the Indus, north of Shikarpoor: these tribes were robbers, and had long been a terror to Sind, but their power now was utterly broken. The moral effect of this conquest was of the utmost importance, for it demonstrated to the people of Sind that they were safe under the rule of the British power.

656. *State of public affairs—Meeting of parliament—The one measure of the session—The downfall of sir Robert Peel's administration—Lord John Russell prime minister—Great distress in Ireland, 1846.*—The subject of the corn laws had for many years received great attention both in and out of parliament. No subject, indeed, had possessed greater interest than the repeal of those laws. In order to effect this purpose an anti-corn-law league had been set on foot, the agents of which were spread over the country in order to gain converts to their free-trade doctrine. Adherents to their cause were obtained daily: even farmers and landowners, who had hitherto seen only ruin in free trade, now began to adopt the views of the great leader of the movement, Mr. Cobden. A stimulus was given to the exertions of the anti-corn-law league in the failure of the potato crop in the autumn of 1845 both in England and Ireland. It was generally felt, indeed, that some alterations in the corn laws must be made, and that government itself, which had uniformly opposed such a step, would be compelled to throw the trade open. Some there were, however, who thought that sir Robert Peel and his party were so infatuated on the subject that they would resist free trade even if it brought about their downfall. In the premier himself they might have hope, they said, but in his coadjutors they foresaw nothing but stern and unrelenting opposition. And there was apparent reason for this conclusion, for while the anti-corn-law league held their meetings to advocate the cause of free trade, the non-freetraders, or friends of the cabinet, held their meet-

Indian tribes were this year reduced by sir Charles Napier, and what was the moral effect of his conquest?

656. What great subject agitated the nation at this period? When



ings likewise, and formed agricultural protection societies in every part of the United Kingdom. It was evident that a change was coming, and while the mass hailed the prospect with delight, the great landowners, with few exceptions, stretched every nerve to stem the onward progress of free-trade principles. But it was in vain. Parliament met on the 19th of February. As her majesty proceeded to the walls of St. Stephen's, a significant incident occurred. At the corner of Bridge-street, one of the spectators exclaimed "No monopoly!" at which her majesty smiled, graciously bowing, on which a hundred voices united in the shout of "God save the queen!" That smile was understood, but it was more fully explained in her majesty's speech, which suggested that it might be expedient not only to repeal prohibitory duties, but to relax those which were protective. This suggestion let out the grand secret that while the country was divided against itself on the subject of free trade, ministers had agreed among themselves that it should form a cabinet measure, and that the question should at once be settled. Accordingly, early in the session the premier brought in a bill, which after warm opposition was carried, by which there was an immediate and great reduction of duties on corn, and which provided that at the end of three years its importation should be free. Another great measure was connected with the repeal of the corn laws, namely, an act by which the customs duties generally were either greatly reduced or wholly repealed. These acts entitled sir Robert Peel to the admiration and gratitude of the whole nation. That admiration and gratitude were awarded him by the people at large, for they felt that he had not only benefited England by these enlightened measures, but all the world. But it was not so within the walls of St. Stephen's. There his triumph proved his downfall. Incensed at him for his free-trade measures, on bringing in a life-protection bill for Ireland his old friends the agriculturists united with the whigs, who were adverse to coercion, and the bill was rejected. Sir Robert Peel now resigned office, and he was succeeded in the premiership by lord John Russell. A whig cabinet, therefore, came into office through the triumph of that very measure, carried by a conservative government, for which they had long clamoured, but which they had not sufficient influence of themselves to pass through parliament. The new cabinet came into office at a very difficult crisis. Last year there had been a partial failure of the potato crop in Ire-

did parliament meet? What incident occurred at the opening of the session? How did sir Robert Peel act with reference to the corn laws? By what other measure was it accompanied? What was the result of these free-trade measures to sir Robert Peel personally? By whom was



land, but in the autumn of 1846 there was almost a total failure. It had at first promised to be abundant, but before it came to perfection the root decayed. The ravages of the disease extended to England and Scotland, but in Ireland the consequences were deplorable. The sufferings of the Irish peasantry were fearful: famine and fever produced widespread mortality. Coroners were engaged day and night, and the two verdicts returned were "death by starvation," "famine and fever." Want, nakedness, and cold thinned the population, and hundreds were buried uncoffined in order to devote the costs of ordinary burial to the wants of the living. In England noble efforts were made to mitigate this dire calamity. The queen and her subjects alike stinted themselves of their daily allowance of bread in order to mitigate Irish suffering. The sum of 10,000*l.* was advanced from the public exchequer, and private subscriptions were raised in England to the amount of nearly 750,000*l.* But the greatest relief was afforded by the sudden opening of the ports for the admission of corn free from all duty, for which purpose parliament was expressly assembled. Ships arrived from all parts of the world laden with corn for the sustenance of life, and thus famine, with all its horrors, was averted. Then was seen in all its full force the beneficial effect of the repeal of the corn laws.

657. *Railway speculations: their effects—Outrage in Ireland—Revolutions—The barren sessions—Chartism overthrown by its own party, 1847–48.*—The opening of the year 1847 was a period of great pecuniary difficulty. Excited by the high profits of the original lines of railways, there had been a wild burst of popular feeling in favour of railway investments. This led to the multiplication of similar projects to such an extent that they outgrew the wants of society and the means of the people. Thousands embarked their property in these speculations, or incurred responsibilities which ultimately led to their ruin. Railway stock, indeed, suddenly fell to a nominal value, which caused such a panic that it extended to the mercantile world, and shook the entire fabric of commercial credit. The crisis, however, was over by the autumn, and confidence was restored. In Ireland the years 1847 and 1848 were distinguished by outrage and wrong. In the former year parliament had recourse to coercive measures for the suppression of the disturbances, but they still continued, and hence, in

he succeeded? What calamity overtook Ireland this autumn? What measures were adopted for its relief?

657. By what difficulty was the opening of the year 1847 characterized? What was the cause of this difficulty? In what state was Ire-



1848, government brought a bill into parliament for the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act. After much opposition the bill passed both houses, and its effects proved salutary, for though insubordination continued, some of the leaders were brought to justice, and the horrors of open rebellion were thereby averted. One would have thought that the aid which had been so nobly afforded by the queen and the people of England to the Irish nation would have called forth the sentiment of gratitude, but instead of this the old animosities between Celt and Saxon remained as lively as ever. The young Irishers, as the Irish agitators were now called, were not a whit more loyal than their ancestors of agitating memory. They were possibly encouraged in their rebellions by events which occurred in foreign countries. The year 1848 was a year of revolutions. Europe was convulsed: kings were driven into exile, and ministers compelled to seek shelter from popular fury. Louis Philippe with his family sought refuge in England, and so also did the prince of Prussia and prince Metternich of Austria. All this excited alarm and anxiety in England, but no serious apprehensions were entertained by her majesty's subjects for the stability of their own institutions. The Americans entertained a notion that they should be honoured with the presence of queen Victoria as a refugee, but she still reigned in the hearts of her people, and was secure. While almost every throne on the continent was shaken by revolutions, the English monarchy stood firm as a rock. The cabinet at this time, however, was by no means popular. In the session of 1847 nothing was done of importance except passing the budget, but in the year 1848 the ministry failed even in this respect. Four budgets were produced, and not one was adopted by the house. At the close of the session, ministers were charged with wasting six months in nugatory legislation, but it must be confessed that their failures were owing to the strong opposition by which they were assailed. During this year the chartists made further exertions to obtain their celebrated "six points." Another monster petition was prepared, assuming to be signed by five millions of people. It was presented to parliament on the 10th of April. It was to have been accompanied by a procession of its supporters, but government wisely prevented the demonstration entering the city, though it was allowed to exhibit its full energy at the outskirts. On examination, this petition, purporting to be signed

land at this period? What measures were adopted for the suppression of the disturbances in that country? In what state was Europe at this period? What refugees came to England? What were the characteristics of the sessions of 1847 and 1848? What petition was in 1848



by five millions, was found to have been signed by less than two, and so many of the signatures were found to be fictitious, that parliament rejected it as a gigantic imposture. The only result of this exhibition of the strength of the chartists proved therefore an exposure of its weakness, and henceforth it was despised by the public. The chartist party was practically annihilated by the suicidal hand of the chartists themselves.

658. *Irish affairs—The commercial policy of government—Repeal of the navigation laws—Attacks on her majesty—War renewed with the Sikhs in the East Indies, 1849.*—Distress and insubordination still existed in Ireland. As usual, therefore, the affairs of the Irish occupied a large share of attention in this year's session of parliament. The first measure adopted was the grant of money to save the starving people of Ireland from destitution. This was an easy task; but how to make provision for the maintenance of the poor was a more abstruse problem. The Irish poor law was a difficult subject for parliament to deal with. An act of that nature was already in existence, but it had not produced the effects which had been desired by the legislature. Government therefore brought in a bill for its amendment, and after much opposition it passed both houses. During this session the foreign and commercial policy of government was called into question. The subject was hotly debated, but the results were somewhat favourable to ministers. At this period there was a general demand from the interested classes for a repeal of the navigation laws. This clamour was so violent that it was with difficulty ministers were prevailed on to postpone the question during the session of 1848. It came on early in this session, when Mr. Labouchere moved in the commons, "That it is expedient to remove the restrictions which prevent the free carriage of goods by sea to and from the united kingdom and the British possessions abroad, and to amend the laws regulating the coasting trade of the united kingdom, subject nevertheless to such control by her majesty in council as may be necessary, and also to amend the laws for the registration of ships and seamen." This motion gave rise to able and instructive debates in both houses of parliament, the result of which was, that the navigation laws, which had long been an obstacle to the progress of commerce, were repealed. Their repeal was hailed with great satisfaction by the great body of the mercantile world,

presented to Parliament, and what were the results of its presentation?

658. What measures were adopted this session respecting Ireland? What was the one great measure of the session? What was the characteristic of the navigation laws? In what position were the two great



for the essential characteristic of those laws was, that they were restrictive, and therefore detrimental to the interests of the general community. This was the one great measure of the session, but ministers were this year more successful in their financial measures. Though economy in carrying on the affairs of government was warmly advocated, they obtained all the supplies they demanded. Parliamentary reform and the admission of Jews into parliament underwent long discussions in this session, but ministers were too weak to pass any measures thereon, while, on the other hand, the rupture which had recently occurred among the conservative party prevented any combined action from taking place for the overthrow of the cabinet. While parliament was sitting, during the month of May, as her majesty was riding in a carriage over Constitution-hill, a pistol was fired off by a labouring man with intent to do her some bodily harm. Such was the evidence of witnesses who saw the act, and on his trial the man pleaded guilty and was sentenced to seven years' transportation. In the following year another attack was made upon her majesty near Cambridge house, and though this culprit appears to have been of unsound mind the same punishment was awarded him. The commencement of this year marked the downfall of the Sikh empire. At the close of the last war the British authorities left their decisive victory incomplete by respecting the independence of the Punjaub, and leaving it under the control of a native administration. This act of clemency, however, was not appreciated. After a brief interval of delusive tranquillity, two British officers, political residents, were murdered at Mooltan. Insubordination rapidly became contagious. The Sikh troops embraced the cause of the mutineers, and it was then determined to subject the Punjaub to the British power. To accomplish this purpose a British army under lord Gough advanced to the banks of the Chenab and Jhelum, classical rivers, which had witnessed the triumphs of Alexander. A battle was gained by him at Ramnugger, on the Chenab, but near the village of Chillianwallah, on the Jhelum, the British suffered a signal defeat. The account of this action, which had been rashly conducted, was received in England with a general burst of indignation not unmingled with alarm. It was, indeed, apprehended that the rashness of lord Gough might compromise the integrity of the Anglo-Indian empire. His recall was demanded, and sir Charles Napier was actually

parties—conservatives and whigs—at this period? What attempts were made upon the life of her majesty during this year and the year 1850? In what war were the British engaged this year, and what were its operations and results?



appointed commander-in-chief of the forces, and he sailed from England in March to supersede lord Gough. Before he arrived in India, however, his lordship had redeemed his lost laurels by gaining a great victory at Goojerat, between the rivers Chenab and Jhelum, and this victory was so well followed up by a close pursuit of the fugitives, that Shere Singh and Chuttur Singh, the two principal leaders, with other sirdars, surrendered themselves as prisoners of war; and by proclamation issued March 29 the governor-general of India declared the Punjaub annexed to the empire of Great Britain. Thus fell the sovereignty of the Sikhs in this fine country, and history does not show any instance of independent national existence having been more justly demolished. It was a sovereignty which, from the restlessness of its chiefs and soldiery, was dangerous to all India.

659. *Domestic affairs—Parliamentary proceedings—Quarrel with the Greek government—Deaths of sir Robert Peel and the duke of Cambridge—A papal brief from Rome, 1850.*—At the commencement of this year the domestic affairs of the British nation were tranquil and cheering. Trade was brisk and prosperous, and the revenue was in a flourishing condition. The agricultural interest was somewhat depressed, and attempts were made in parliament at legislation for its relief; but as the alleged cause of the distress was free trade, no measures were adopted. It was supposed that if agriculturists waited patiently they would find that free trade was better than protection, and time has proved the correctness of the supposition. The affairs of Ireland still called for the attention of parliament. That country was still in distress, but it was more peaceable than it had been for many years. There was but little agitation, for the chief leaders of sedition had at this period been either cut off by death or sent out of the country by government. In previous years grants of money had been made to relieve the distress of the people, and the same munificence was displayed this session. Under the combined operations of the potato famine and the reduced price of grain, Ireland was in such a reduced condition that it became necessary for the authors of the reform bill and the supporters of free trade to lower the suffrage in order to prevent the constituency from becoming extinct. An act passed this session by which the rating of 8*l.* a year became the standard both in boroughs and counties; an amount scarcely equal to the annual maintenance of an English pauper. No measures of great

659. In what state was the nation at this period? In what state was Ireland, and what measures were adopted by parliament respecting



importance were passed this session, for ministers were still feeble, although they managed to retain their position. On one subject they were at this time highly unpopular. For some time a diplomatic correspondence had been going on between the British government and that of Greece, in regard to certain claims of the former, founded partly on an alleged act of injustice of the king of Greece to a British subject, and partly on injuries said to have been inflicted on another British subject by an Athenian mob. The government of Athens expressed a willingness to give reasonable compensation and to submit the settlement of the claim to arbitration, but the British government demanded a given sum which was so exorbitant that the Athenian government refused to give it, and lord Palmerston finally resolved to extort concession at the cannon's mouth. Admiral Parker with a British squadron was ordered to make sail for Athens, and to repeat, in the name of his government, a peremptory demand for the reparation sought; and on its being still withheld, the British admiral notified that the harbour was placed in a state of blockade. This demand thus enforced was a violation of the law of nations, and it nearly led to a war between England and the two greatest continental powers—France and Russia. The French government demanded explanations; and receiving none that were satisfactory, the French ambassador was recalled. The Russian ambassador was preparing to follow his example which created such a sensation that the matter was brought before parliament. In the upper house lord Stanley called upon the peers to clear the character of a great nation, which, he said, had been prostituted by an attempt to enforce unjust demands upon a weak and defenceless state, and his motion was carried by a large majority. A change of ministry was now generally contemplated; but a motion was carried in the commons a few days after, approving the foreign policy of government, which victory prolonged the life of the administration. Lord Palmerston, however, had to retrace the step he had taken, and to agree to submit the disputed claim to arbitration, and the matter ended by the arbiters giving about a thirtieth part of the sums originally demanded. On this occasion sir Robert Peel delivered one of the most brilliant speeches he had ever uttered within the walls of St. Stephen's, which was attended with one mournful peculiarity—it was his last. Within a few hours after, as he was riding up Con-

that country? What quarrel occurred between the governments of Great Britain and Greece? To what difficulties did this give rise? How was the quarrel finally settled? What great statesman died this



stitution-hill, he was thrown from his horse, from the effects of which, after lingering in great pain for some days, he died. This melancholy event produced a great sensation throughout the country, and the grief felt for his loss was as sincere as it was universal. Distinguished honours were paid to his memory, not only by the British parliament, but by the national assembly of France, for all felt that a great statesman had departed from among men.

"Now is the stately column broke,  
The beacon light is quenched in smoke ;  
The trumpet's silvery sound is still,  
The warder silent on the hill."

This great statesman had scarcely been consigned to the silent tomb when the duke of Cambridge expired after a short illness, a prince remarkable for his kindness of heart and genial philanthropy. It is remarkable that parliament wished to award public funerals both to the deceased statesman and prince: a mode of burial which both had expressly interdicted in their last dying hours. At the close of this session the country was in a state of great tranquillity. In the autumn, however, an event occurred which produced a great sensation. A papal brief was sent from Rome constituting an episcopal hierarchy in England and Wales. But the papal court never made a greater mistake than when it issued this document: such a demonstration was made against it both by churchmen and dissenters that the pontiff must have been convinced that England would never again submit to papal domination. On every hand it was received with scoffs and contumely, and as the 5th of November came round, when the ferment was at its height, Guy Fawkes was this year forgotten: in his place the images of the pope and the English cardinal, archbishop Wiseman, were first paraded in the streets, and then committed to the flames amidst thousands of spectators. The brief might have done very well for the middle ages, but not for the nineteenth century.

660. *Parliamentary proceedings—Ministers resign and resume office—The ecclesiastical titles bill—Great exhibition of the industry of all nations—The census, 1851.*—The subject of the papal brief was early brought under notice in the session of 1851. It gave rise to a long and vehement debate, and leave was given to bring in a bill to prevent the assumption by the

year, and what was the cause of his death? What other noted personage died this year? What particular event happened in the autumn of this year? How was the papal brief received in England?

660. To what event did a discussion in parliament on the papal brief



papal see of certain ecclesiastical titles in respect of places in the United Kingdom. This was striking at the root of the matter, but there was such a diversity of opinion on the subject, and ministers met with such determined opposition both on this measure and others, and especially on their financial statement, that they were compelled to resign office. It was, however, found difficult to construct a new administration. Three successive attempts were made, but they all failed, and her majesty then recalled her late ministers. On resuming office, government reproduced the ecclesiastical titles bill, which, although its details were modified, was again warmly opposed, but eventually passed both houses. Their financial measures met with a much more favourable reception than those before propounded: the window-tax was repealed, and the income-tax renewed for one year. With the exception of the ecclesiastical titles bill—which was of very questionable importance—the parliamentary transactions of this year leave no trace on the records of history. The annals of 1851, however, are memorable for two important events. On the 1st of May the Great Exhibition of the Industry of all Nations was opened by her majesty in Hyde-park. This project was due originally to the Society of Arts, but was afterwards adopted by the nation. The building erected for this display was literally a palace of glass which covered seventeen acres, or nearly seven times the area of St. Paul's cathedral. During five months this noble exhibition, to which the whole of the known world sent its contributions, was visited by upwards of six millions of people, natives and foreigners, not only without disturbance, but with a fraternizing spirit truly marvellous. The palace, which was termed "crystal" from its transparency, was designed by Mr. Paxton, who was not an architect, and it was a structure of such fairy-like beauty as the world had never before looked upon. But it was evanescent. It had been erected almost with the silence and rapidity of Aladdin's palace—it stood as a monument of genius during the summer and autumn—and as winter approached it was demolished with greater rapidity than it had been erected. The world had looked upon it, and it then vanished, but this jubilee of commerce will be perpetuated as long as the records of history embellish the roll of time. This year was also distinguished by a census being taken of the whole population of the British islands, the returns of which exhibited

give rise? Why were ministers recalled to office? What success did they meet with on resuming office? What exhibition took place in Hyde-park this year? Can you relate what you have read about it? By what other event was this year signalized? What discovery was



results of a novel and startling character that seemed to indicate a turning point in the fortunes and destiny of the state. Those returns showed that there had been a decrease in the population during the preceding five years of at least 700,000 souls, or 140,000 annually. This decrease arose chiefly from these two causes,—emigration and the famine in Ireland. The total number of emigrants from the end of 1846 to the same period in 1851 amounted to 1,422,000 souls, while those who perished directly from the effects of the Irish famine amounted to 450,000. Another cause of decrease was the unhealthiness of towns, the census returns proving to demonstration that the mortality in the towns is 50 per cent. greater than in the country. All great empires, it has been observed, have perished from the desertion of the country and the flocking of its inhabitants to great towns in quest of subsistence, as Rome in ancient and Turkey in modern times, and some have imagined from the returns of the census in 1851 that a powerful arresting cause has set in upon the inhabitants of Great Britain; but till the census of 1861 comes to be taken, it cannot be said with certainty whether the decline of the population of the empire is real or imaginary: whether a prediction uttered by lord Shaftesbury at the Social Science Association is likely to be verified or to fall to the ground, namely: “The time is coming, and is not far distant, when we shall experience a want of population for social, industrial, and military purposes.”

661. *Lord Palmerston removed from office—Defeat and resignation of ministers—Earl of Derby prime minister—Measures in parliament—Death of the duke of Wellington—Resignation of earl Derby's cabinet—Lord Aberdeen prime minister, 1852.*—The minister for foreign affairs, lord Palmerston, had become so elated by the majority in the commons, which had carried him through on the Greek question, that his colleagues complained that he carried on matters in his department too exclusively on his own authority. The premier also complained of certain expressions used by his lordship to the Hungarian refugees as likely to disturb the peace of Europe, and of a conversation held by him with the French ambassador regarding the *coup d'état* of December 2nd, 1851, repugnant to the tenour of the instruction sent by the government to the English ambassador at Paris, which was to abstain from all interference in the affairs of France. Nor was this all:

made by the census returns? How was the decrease of the population accounted for, and to what fears has it given rise? Are those fears well founded, or to what period must they be referred for confirmation?

661. What causes led to the removal of lord Palmerston from office



the foreign secretary fell under her majesty's censure for not making her sufficiently acquainted with important public measures, and altering some state papers in material passages after they had been submitted to her approval. Under these circumstances the premier recommended her majesty to remove lord Palmerston from office, which was accordingly done, lord Granville being appointed his successor. Lord John Russell, however, had an experienced antagonist to deal with, and the ex-foreign secretary soon had his revenge. Although the premier had maintained the system of non-interference in foreign affairs, government felt that the country was placed in a perilous position in presence of the sovereign of France, whose intentions were as yet unknown, and therefore a bill was brought into the commons, the object of which was to establish a *local* militia of 70,000 men, and to add 4000 infantry and 1000 artillery to the regular army. Lord Palmerston saw his opportunity, and availed himself of it. He moved as an amendment that the word "local" should be omitted, which would have rendered the proposed militia a permanent force, differing from the line only in not being bound to serve out of the country. This was resisted with the whole weight of government, but a coalition having been formed between the conservatives and lord Palmerston's personal friends, the amendment was carried by a majority of nine. Deeming this vote one of want of confidence in the administration, the whole ministry resigned, and a new cabinet was formed under the premiership of the earl of Derby. By the admission even of its adversaries, the new ministry was composed of men of distinguished abilities, and as a leader of the house of commons, armed at all points in the panoply of talent, Mr. Disraeli stood pre-eminent. The ministry was protectionist in its principles, and it was feared that attempts would be made to restore the corn laws and other restrictive measures, which had been swept away by the whigs. These fears were unfounded; for on assuming office, government distinctly stated to parliament that they did not intend to reverse the free-trade policy, but only so to alter and modify it as not to press unjustly upon one class. Although this explanation was not deemed satisfactory, it was now thought that the Derby government would prove effective, and in this session they passed the militia bill, the income-tax continuance bill, and several other useful measures relative to the law courts and the colonies.

On what subject did the ex-foreign secretary have his revenge? Under whose auspices was the new cabinet formed? What fears were entertained of the new ministers? What measures did they succeed in passing? In what position was the Derby ministry? What resulted



The Derby ministry, however, had not a decided majority in the house, and hence, after parliament was prorogued, recourse was had to a general election. In the mean time, the duke of Wellington, full of years and honours, and the "hero of a hundred fights," died, and the whole nation as one man mourned his loss. When he breathed his last, nine batons fell from his hand; he was a prince in Belgium, a duke in England and Spain, and a field-marshal in Russia, Prussia, Austria, Spain, France, Hanover, the Netherlands, Portugal, and England. He was buried in St. Paul's cathedral, and while foreign princes and marshals stood at the head of his coffin, prince Albert and the English generals who had borne the pall wept at its foot. Such a funeral had never before been witnessed in England, and when the coffin was lowered into the grave close behind the tomb of Nelson, every heart within the vast cathedral throbbed with emotion. It is said that 18,000 persons arranged on seats in the form of an amphitheatre, among whom were the first and noblest in the land, witnessed the spectacle, and that when the procession entered the cathedral, and the anthem was struck up from the powerful organ and splendid orchestra, every voice within its walls swelled the mighty strain.

"Such honours Ilion to our hero paid,  
And peaceful slept the mighty Hector's shade."

The last speech uttered by the duke of Wellington in parliament was a powerful one in favour of the militia bill, carried by the Derby government before the prorogation and dissolution. The general election which ensued upon the dissolution was conducted on both sides with great keenness, but without violence or intimidation. The contest lay in money matters, for bribery and corruption were carried on to an unprecedented extent. No fewer than fifty-two petitions were presented against the return of members in the house, about an equal number of which were of the opposite parties. The result of the election was not in favour of ministers. On the meeting of the new parliament some additions were made by government to the navy and artillery, in spite of the opposition of the peace party, but the greatest resistance was reserved for the budget. It was on the whole an enlightened budget, but there was one fatal proposition in it, namely, that the house-tax, which did not descend below houses rated

from that position? Over whose death were the nation called to mourn during the dissolution of parliament? What honours were paid to the duke of Wellington's memory? In what manner was the election conducted? What was its chief characteristic? When the new parliament



at 20*l.*, should be extended to those rated at 10*l.* and upwards. This created such a sensation throughout the country, that, from all quarters, peremptory and significant instructions were sent to representatives by their constituents to make every effort to throw out the measure, and the result was that the budget was rejected. The Derby cabinet now resigned, and the whole whig administration were reinstated, lord Aberdeen being premier.

662. *Parliamentary measures—The Burmese war—The Caffrarian war, 1853.*—Parliament met on the 4th of February, and the business of the session was varied and important. During its sittings several taxes, tending to cramp the operations of trade and industry, were reduced, and various useful measures were passed. Among these were the naval coasts bill, the pilotage and mercantile marine bills, a bill relating to the charities of England, and an important measure for the future government of India. The session was also marked by several law reforms, and on the whole it was one of the most fruitful for legislative acts of utility which had been known for a long period. This year witnessed the termination of a second war with the king of Ava. English merchants had suffered so much from extortions and ill-usage at Rangoon, that the governor-general of India concluding therefrom that the treaty of Yandoboo, made at the conclusion of the first Burmese war, had been violated, sent to demand reparation. All attempts, however, at pacific overtures only produced fresh insults, and during the year 1852 a hostile expedition was prepared to obtain redress. This expedition was placed under the command of general Godwin, who, in the course of the year, captured Martaban, Prome, Pegu and Rangoon, the maritime capital of the British empire. The province of Pegu was annexed by proclamation to the British territories in the east as a compensation for the past, and better security for the future. By the possession of Rangoon, Pegu, and Martaban, the British had the command of the mouths of the Irawaddy, and were in a situation to be enabled to close at pleasure an inland trade essential to the provisioning of the capital. Thus threatened, the king of Ava signed a treaty by which he engaged not to offer further molestation against British subjects, to throw open the navigation of the Irawaddy to the merchants and people of both countries; and not to molest the British in their newly-acquired province of Pegu assembled, on what measure were ministers defeated? What was the result of this defeat?

662. What measures were adopted in the session of 1853? What were the causes of the second Burmese war? What were its operations? What new treaty was signed between the king of Ava and the gover-



Hostilities with the native forces of Burmah now ceased, but the British had to sustain for some months a harassing war with some feudatory bands, which, taking advantage of the confusion produced by the war, had established themselves in various parts of the country in strong forts, from whence they issued to plunder and lay waste the adjacent country. The most noted of these freebooters was one named Mea-toon, who long withstood the British arms, but his stronghold was finally carried by storm, when he fled into the woods with three hundred followers, who, in despair threw away their arms and dispersed. No further attempt was now made to disturb the British in their newly-acquired conquest. Peace reigned through their vast dominions from the mouths of the Indus to those of the Irawaddy, and from cape Comorin to the Himalaya snows. This year also witnessed the close of a serious war, in which the British troops had been engaged since the year 1850, with the Caffres at the cape of Good Hope. The principal and most hostile chief of the Caffres was Sandilli, who, at the head of a tribe of naked savages, defeated the British under colonel Somerset, advanced beyond the Great Fish river, and ravaged the colony. To add to the calamity, the Hottentots, hitherto faithful to the British, joined the Caffres and aided them in their ravages. The principal features of the war were the burning of homesteads belonging to British settlers, and driving away their flocks; and, protected by bush and jungle, they carried on this predatory warfare almost with impunity. In 1851 the 74th Highlanders landed at the Cape, and by a succession of skilful movements drove the enemy into the fastnesses of the Amatol and the Water Kloof. They held these fastnesses in 1852 when general Cathcart landed and took the command. This able officer, who had been trained in the great wars of Europe of 1813-14, brought to bear upon the contest strategic talents of the highest order, and, after a series of hard-fought combats, Sandilli and the other chieftains, by the opening of this year, 1854, were brought to submission. By a treaty of peace the colony was again advanced to the Kei, and a defensive frontier gained, which has not since been disturbed. At this time, indeed, by an act of self-immolation, the Caffre nation are a scattered people at the Cape, incapable of doing harm. In 1858 a person appeared among them who gave himself out for a prophet, and he preached that their misfortunes were owing to the wrath of the gods for permitting Christian ministers to

nor-general of India? What further hostilities took place, and with whom? What was the nature of the war with the Caffres, and when did it commence? By whom were the Caffres finally subdued, and



settle among them. Their gods, he said, could only be appeased by sacrificing their whole cattle upon their altars, and if they did this, the British power would be speedily destroyed. This was done: forty thousand cattle were offered up, and, as this occurred at a season of the year when the Caffres had no other food to subsist upon, thousands of them died from famine, and the survivors crowded into the British territory, imploring employment and food from the hands of those into whose dwellings they had so recently brought fire and sword, and against whom they had displayed such deadly animosity.

663. *The state of Europe—The war session—War proclaimed with Russia—The battle of the Alma—Sebastopol besieged—The battles of Balaclava and Inkermann—Naval operations, &c., 1854.*—In her majesty's speech at the close of the session of 1853 she remarked: "It is with deep interest and concern that I have watched the serious misunderstanding which has recently arisen between the emperor of Russia and the Ottoman Porte. The emperor of the French has united with me in earnest endeavours to reconcile differences, the continuance of which might involve Europe in war. Acting in concert with my allies, and relying on the exertions of the conference now assembled at Vienna, I have good reason to hope that an honourable arrangement will speedily be accomplished." This paragraph in her majesty's speech indicates the state of Europe at this period. Russia and the Ottoman Porte were at issue ostensibly about the holy places in Palestine, but in reality Russia had designs upon Turkey. There had recently been a contest, merely for supremacy in matters of religion between the Greek and Latin monks in Palestine concerning the shrines and relics at Jerusalem. Nicholas, emperor of Russia, took up the quarrel and claimed to protect the orthodox, that is, the Greek religion in Turkey. In effect, his demand was to rule over that section of the sultan's subjects who professed the Greek religion, and this demand being rejected, he poured his troops into Wallachia to support his claims by the sword. These troops were defeated at Oltenitza by Omar Pasha, and, as an act of revenge for the disgrace thus sustained, a Turkish fleet which lay in the harbour of Sinope was suddenly attacked by a Russian squadron

when? What extraordinary act of self-immolation broke up the power of the Caffres? When did this take place?

663. In what state was Europe at the opening of this year? What was the nature of the quarrel between Russia and the Ottoman Porte? What was the character of the emperor of Russia's designs? When were the Russians defeated by Omar Pasha? What revenge was taken for that defeat? In what light was the massacre at Sinope looked upon by Eng-



and destroyed. This act produced a profound sensation in Europe, and, as it was considered that this attack was a bold defiance of the naval strength of England and France, the fleets of those two powers took possession of the Black Sea. War with Russia was now inevitable, for although the czar was lavish in his negotiations with England and France of his professions of peaceable views, such an act of treachery could not be overlooked, especially as it was evident that Turkey lay at the mercy of Russia. The western powers therefore summoned the czar to lay down arms, and England and France were both eager for the strife of war. Such was the state of Europe when parliament was opened on the 30th of January. In her speech her majesty still expressed a hope that the differences between Russia and the Ottoman Porte might be settled amicably, but at the same time she stated that it would be necessary to increase our naval and military forces lest war should ensue. The question of peace or war formed the chief topic in parliament at the commencement of its sitting, some advocating peace, but the majority giving their opinion for war. In March, however, all discussion as to whether there should be peace or war ceased, for a royal message was sent to parliament which proclaimed to England and all the world that there *should* be war with Russia. This great subject occupied the attention of parliament throughout the whole of the session, so that its results, as regards domestic measures, were few and unimportant. It was essentially a war session, and thirty-nine years had passed away since there had been any session that could bear comparison with it. But while the British parliament were talking about war, and providing for its being carried on, war had commenced. An English army under lord Raglan, and a French army under marshal St. Arnaud, had landed on the shores of the Bosphorus. For nearly two months British and French troops successively landed at Gallipoli, Constantinople, and Scutari. In the meantime, the Turks had bravely driven the Russians out of Citate, and, aided by two English officers, Butler and Nasmyth, had compelled them to retreat from the walls of Silistria to which they had laid siege. The first British cannon was fired by the navy in April in revenge for an insult offered by the Russians in firing upon a flag of truce: Odessa was bombarded, and most of its batteries silenced and destroyed. By the

land and France? How did those powers act? When was war declared between England and France on the one side, and Russia on the other? What was the characteristic of this year's session of parliament? Who commanded the English and French forces? Where did the troops land? What further victories did the Turks gain over the Russians?



middle of May the French and English were in sufficient force to commence operations, and a camp was formed at Varna. Here they lingered too long, for the valleys in which they were encamped were pestilential, and the troops died by thousands. At length, however, it was resolved to invade the Crimea, and to strike a blow at the power of Russia where it might most be felt, to capture that stronghold, Sebastopol, which gave the czar the dominion of the Black Sea. In one day forty thousand English and French warriors with a powerful artillery were precipitated upon a hostile coast, a coast where a powerful Russian army were drawn up in order of battle to dispute their onward progress. The allies landed at Eupatoria on the 14th of September, and in a few days they marched towards Sebastopol. As they approached the river Alma, dark moving masses of men and glittering lance heads and bayonets were seen moving about on the hill sides: this was the Russian army under prince Menschikoff. It was on the morning of the 20th of September that the allies resolved to encounter the Russian army, the English taking the post of honour, the front, and the French marching with the idea of turning the flank of the Russians. The French crossed the Alma first, in the midst of a deadly fire, and then the order for the English to advance was given. The command was no sooner given than the British soldiers dashed into the Alma, and having crossed it, on they went up the heights in masses, and though mowed down by a murderous fire by hundreds, they halted not till they had reached the batteries and captured them. In a brief space of time the British soldiers crowned those heights which the flying masses of Russians had occupied. Throwing away their knapsacks and their arms, the Russian soldiery broke away from their ranks and fled, while the French and English artillery followed them with a murderous fire. Had there been a sufficient force of cavalry, scarcely a man among the Russians could have escaped death or captivity. The battle of Alma was glorious to the arms of the allies, but it was won with a loss of nearly 3000 killed and wounded, which proved the great strength of the enemy. The allies now marched towards the northern face of Sebastopol, but finding themselves inadequate to accomplish its reduction, they turned towards the south in the direction of Balaklava. As the allies showed themselves on the heights above the city, a

Where was the English and French camp formed? What happened while they were there? What country did they invade, and for what purpose? When did they land in the Crimea? Where did they encounter the Russians, and with what result? In what direction did they lay siege to Sebastopol? What was the characteristic of the siege? What



great panic was observed: property was being removed, and ladies and civilians were seen hurrying along the road which leads into the interior of the country, to escape the danger. The place was invested, and on the 17th of October the besiegers opened fire, which was replied to by the Russians, shot for shot. The siege of Sebastopol is one of the most memorable in the annals of history! From the first it was evident that the struggle would be prolonged, and so it proved. It was a siege made up of assaults and counter-assaults; of sallies made by the enemy and repulses; of hand-to-hand fights; of struggles to overcome natural difficulties by the pick-axe; of wearisome months of existence in the trenches; of deaths by famine, sword, and disease, and all the evils to which such a mode of warfare is incident. At its commencement, marshal St. Arnaud was dead, and general Canrobert had taken the command of the French army, and his description of the difficulties to be encountered resolved itself into two points: those which resulted from the nature of the soil, the solid stratum of which diminished as the trenches approached the place; and those resulting from the number and calibre of the enemy's artillery. Nothing could be more formidable, but from the first there was no doubt as to the practicability of capturing that far-famed stronghold. But the Russians valiantly defended it not only from within its walls, but in the field. Two memorable episodes in this war took place in the autumn, which must be recorded. On the 25th of October a battle occurred at Balaclava, which was made up of five struggles or contests: first, the capture of a series of earthen redoubts from the Turks by the Russians; second, the heroic repulse by the 93rd Highlanders of a furious charge made by a cavalry of Cossacks: third, the defeat by the British light cavalry of a much larger body of Russian cavalry; fourth, the mistaken but wonderful onslaught by the British light cavalry, consisting of only 670 horsemen, against a complete army of Russian artillery, infantry, and cavalry; and fifth, a dashing charge of the French chasseurs d'Afrique, which finished the work of the day and left the allies victors. The fight sustained by the British light cavalry was that of heroes for they dashed through the Russian army, and through a Russian battery, cutting down the artillery men, and then, sword in hand, cleft their way back again through the Russian hosts, undismayed at their numbers, in the midst of a storm of round and grape shot, vomited forth by batteries placed on the hill sides right and left, and everywhere assailed by the glit-

memorable episodes in the war took place this year? Can you relate what you have read about the battle of Balaclava? Can you relate what you



tering lances of the Cossacks. More than 400, however, of this devoted band fell in the unequal conflict, while the rest returned amid the cheers of their admiring comrades. This battle was one among a series of occurrences arising out of the system of tactics adopted by Menschikoff, who, finding that the allies were gradually strengthening their siege works, adopted the plan of harassing them in the rear, of attempting to disturb their security at Balaclava, and of wearing them down by imposing a necessity for watchfulness. The two battles of Inkermann were links in this chain. One of these occurred the day after the battle of Balaclava, but was easily repulsed with great slaughter to the enemy. The second battle of Inkermann occurred on the 5th of November, and was one of the most formidable proportions. On the morning of that day huge masses of Russians stole up to the British position in the midst of a dense fog, and such a fight commenced as the British soldier was never before called upon to encounter. It was a day of immortal honour for the British arms—a day of terrible carnage in the assertion of the majesty “with which the British soldier fights.” It was the soldiers’ battle, for it was a series of sanguinary hand-to-hand fights, of despairing rallies, of desperate assaults—in glens and valleys, in brushwood glades and remote dells, hidden from all human eyes, and from which the conquerors, Russian or British, issued only to engage fresh foes, till our old supremacy, so rudely assailed, was triumphantly asserted, and the battalions of the czar gave way before our steady courage, and “the chivalrous fire of France.” For many hours the British had to sustain this terrible battle alone, and victory seemed doubtful, but at length the French arrived with “the light of battle on their faces,” and the Russians were everywhere defeated. Again their backs were turned towards the allies, and the artillery mowed them down by hundreds as they fled along the valley. The battle was gained, but it was with a terrible loss. Nearly all the commanders of divisions and brigades engaged in the fight were either killed or wounded; and the total loss of killed, wounded, and missing, English and French, amounted to 4400. The Russians left as many on the field, and carried away as many more during the battle. With this battle the campaign for this year closed, but the allies prosecuted the siege with vigour, working their way mole-like under ground closer and closer to the forts of the enemy, the two Redans, the Mamelon, and Malakoff, against which all their energies were directed. In November the fleet in the Black Sea

have read about the two battles of Inkermann? In the last battle what were



encountered a storm which proved very disastrous: the whole coast was strewn with fragments of vessels and disrupted cargoes of valuable merchandize. The storm, also, swept over the British camp, and caused great destruction of both life and property, but the Russians suffered even more than the allies, for thousands perished on the march over the exposed steppes of the Crimea and southern Russia. In the Black Sea the British navy had no enemy to encounter, for the Russian fleet, which had destroyed the Turkish fleet at Sinope, remained under the guardianship of the guns at Sebastopol, until, in the progress of the war, the Russians were compelled to sink or burn every one of them to the water's edge. In the Baltic a large fleet under the command of Sir Charles Napier, aided by a French fleet, destroyed a powerful battery at Eckness, bombarded and captured Bomarsund, and captured many merchant ships laden with merchandize. The fortified towns of Novitska, and Kola the capital of Russian Lapland, both of which were situate in the White Sea, were bombarded and destroyed.

664. *Meeting of parliament—Mismanagement of the war—Increase of the income-tax, &c.—Resignation of lord Aberdeen—Lord Palmerston prime minister—The military ardour, &c.—Public munificence—Railway at Balaclava—Sardinia joins the allies—Capture of the Mamelon—Death of the czar Nicholas—Death of lord Raglan—The battle of the Tchernaya—The last great cannonade opened—The final triumph—Other operations—The treaty of peace, 1855-56.*—As in the last session so it was in the session of 1855: war was its principal theme. There had been great mismanagement in the conduct of the war by government, and the censures heaped upon them made them more active in sending out fresh troops, and the necessary provision for their sustenance. The whole country, indeed, denounced the tardy manner in which the war had been conducted, and burned with impatience to see it carried on effectively. The people were willing to pay for it, for although the property and income-tax had been loudly declaimed against in former years, they suffered an increase of it this year without murmuring. In this session, also, bills were passed for embodying the militia,

the losses on both sides? What disaster befell the British by land and sea in November? How did this storm affect the Russians? What became of the Russian fleet in the Black Sea? What naval operations occurred this year in the Baltic and the White Sea?

664. In what manner had government conducted the war in the Crimea? How was their mismanagement looked upon by the people? How did the people show their approval of the war? What measures



and for the enlistment of foreigners. But with all their newborn energies, lord Aberdeen's ministry could not give satisfaction. The country was warlike, and resolved to have a government which would carry out their views to the utmost. Feeling, therefore, that the voice of the nation was against him, lord Aberdeen resigned, and he was succeeded in the government by lord Palmerston. The operations of the war were now carried on with the energy the people desired. Ships laden with men and materials for carrying on the siege of Sebastopol sailed from our seaports daily. And there was no lack of soldiers, for military ardour filled the breasts of the youths of Great Britain in all parts of the kingdom, and hundreds were daily enlisted. As they went forth to battle, they were followed by the sympathy of all who remained at home. Public munificence and private bounty knew no bounds. A patriotic fund was established, to which all classes of society subscribed according to their means. The queen and the peasant alike gave liberally. Hence, as the spring advanced, our soldiers in the Crimea were abundantly supplied with necessaries, and even luxuries, while the sick and wounded in the hospitals at Scutari were tenderly watched over by nurses sent out for that purpose: the heroine Miss Nightingale being the chief among the nurses sent out on that humane mission. The labours of our soldiers were also greatly lightened. In the early part of the siege they had been compelled to drag up the war material to the heights of Sebastopol through mud and mire knee deep, but an army of navigators were sent out, who with wonderful celerity levelled hill and valley, and constructed a railway by which royal road everything was forwarded to the trenches. Great was the amazement of Turk and Tartar when they saw that monster the steam-engine breathing fire and smoke, and traversing the trams of the railway with the fleetness of a racehorse. "Allah," they said, "was great;" and there were no such people on the earth in their estimation as the English. This new feature in the war was effectual. It enabled the allies to bring up such a quantity of shot and shell as could never have been conveyed thither by ordinary modes of transit, without a great waste of labour and time. The railway also wafted fresh soldiers to the trenches to take the place of those who daily died from the fire and sallies of the enemy, and from disease and exhaustion.

were passed this session respecting it? Why did lord Aberdeen resign? By whom was he succeeded? How was the war now carried on by government? In what way did the public contribute to the comforts of the soldiers? In what way were their labours lightened?



During the spring, the allies were not only re-enforced from their own countries, but Sardinia supplied a noble contingent, and the allies, therefore, now consisted of England, France, Sardinia, and Turkey. In conjunction, they aided one another as though they had been of one kindred. The numerous enterprises which they undertook, the numerous sorties and attacks which they repulsed, and the gigantic efforts they made to capture the Russian stronghold, all proved that the bonds of their union were cemented by mutual respect and confidence. Their end and aim were one and indivisible, and they worked together with a hearty good-will to accomplish their object. In the midst of their terrible struggle, an event occurred which startled the world. With the speed of a flash of lightning, the electric telegraph told that the czar Nicholas, whose wicked ambition had given rise to this gigantic struggle, was no more. Within one day half the capitals in Europe were made acquainted with his death, and few out of Russia mourned his loss. The electric telegraph was the medium by which Europe daily learned what was going on in the trenches before Sebastopol. Hot from the terrible siege rushed the lightning spark over land and sea: the bell tinkled in a quiet room at Whitehall; the needles moved, and the mind at the other end of the wire told its wondrous tales. Now it was a sortie repulsed; now a battle fought; and perhaps now the death of some noted leader who fell in the fight, or was cut down by a stroke of disease. Once it told "lord Raglan is dead," and the people mourned his departure from the scene of strife. This was in June, soon after general Pelissier, who had succeeded general Canrobert as commander of the French forces, in conjunction with lord Raglan, had captured the Mamelon: an important step towards the taking of the town, as the Malakoff only intervened to prevent the entrance of the victors into Sebastopol. Against the Malakoff and the Redan, the besiegers exerted their utmost strength and skill. An attempt was made in June to take them by storm, but it failed, for the allies were not yet near enough to bombard them with effect. Again, therefore, the pickaxe and shovel were worked with extraordinary vigour, to enable the besiegers to plant their guns in nearer proximity to those far-famed works. The

What new ally joined the English and French? How did the various troops act together? In the midst of this great struggle, what great personage died? By what means was his death made known? What was the medium of intelligence from Sebastopol? When did lord Raglan die? What capture had been made before his death? By



British forces were now commanded by general Simpson, who, with general Pelissier, planned and executed the last final assault. In the meantime, the great battle of the Tchernaya was fought. Like that of Inkermann, this battle was an attempt to force the allies from their position on the heights; like that, too, it was a surprise; and like that, the victory was won amidst an overwhelming disparity of numbers. But there were these differences in this battle; it was fought with rifles and not with the bayonet; and it was chiefly fought by the Sardinians and the French, and not by the troops of Great Britain. The loss sustained by the Russians was estimated at 6000 men, and that of the allies at only about 1000. This was the only episode in the war of any great magnitude during the campaign. Day and night sorties, some of which were formidable, were made, which caused heavy losses in the aggregate on both sides, but they were only made to be repulsed. At length, the trenches being completed, were opened, and the last great cannonade of Sebastopol commenced. This was on the 5th of September, and for four days there was a continuous roar of artillery which shook the earth. On the 8th, on a sudden, the firing ceased, and forth from the trenches poured the English troops towards the Redan, and the French towards the Malakoff. The attack on the Redan failed, but the tri-coloured flag soon waved over the ramparts of the Malakoff, and that was sufficient. By its capture, Sebastopol had fallen. Prince Gortschakoff, who commanded within that famous stronghold, in the course of the night led his troops across a bridge of boats in the harbour to the north side of Sebastopol, leaving the south in the hands of the victors. It was found to be an utter ruin: and no wonder; for during that siege, unexampled either in ancient or modern history, no less than 1,500,000 shells and shot had been fired at or into the town from the mortars and cannon of the besiegers. Ruined as it was, however, the victors took up their winter quarters there, which were found to be far better than those they had last year spent in the long, dark, and sinuous line of trenches underground. During the operations of this wonderful siege, various events of importance occurred in other parts. In the direction of Eupatoria, Omar Pasha, aided by the French and English, attacked the Russian

whom was lord Raglan succeeded? What great battle was fought during this campaign? What was the loss of the Russians in that battle? What was the loss of the allies? When was the last great cannonade commenced? When was the final assault made? What were its results? In what condition was Sebastopol when the allies entered it? Where did the troops winter? Can you relate what other



forces on several occasions, and obtained easy victories. The combined French and English fleets, in concert with a French and English army, captured Kinburn at the mouth of the Dnieper, and soon after Sebastopol was captured, they destroyed the batteries of the fort of Oczakoff. In the sea of Azoff, also, our fleets committed great devastation. Many towns were captured, and some were destroyed. Kertch, Yenikale, Anapa, Soudjuk Kale and Fort St. Paul were evacuated by the Russians, and the granaries and stores of Arabat, Genitchi, Berdiausk, Mariopol, and Taganrog, were destroyed. In the Baltic, Sveaborg was bombarded and destroyed, and Cronstadt was blockaded. In the White Sea, similar events took place as in the sea of Azoff: many towns were captured and destroyed. During the whole of the year, the Russians achieved but one victory. That was the capture of Kars, which had been heroically defended by the Turks under the command of general Williams, and which was only surrendered, when its noble garrison had lost all hope of succour, and were on the point of dying from starvation. Such were the varied vicissitudes of this memorable struggle with the gigantic power of Russia. As winter approached, great preparations were made in England, France, and the Crimea, for the utter destruction of the Russian power in the Black Sea. Had the war continued, it was resolved to subjugate the whole of the Crimea; but in the midst of the mighty preparations which were being made for that purpose, through the mediation of Austria peace was restored. For a long time the czar Alexander, who had succeeded to the throne on the death of his father, held out against the terms offered, but he finally conceded all that the allies demanded. By the terms of a treaty, which was signed by the belligerent powers early in the year 1856, it was agreed that the Russian protectorate in the Danubian principalities should be abolished: that the river Danube should be freed from all political obstructions: that the Black Sea should be closed against all fleets except a few light Turkish and Russian vessels, which are to act as a maritime coast-guard; and that the Christian subjects of the Porte should be placed under the protection of all the contracting powers without any preference to the Russian government. These four great points, with others of minor importance, were signed in March, 1856, at a con-

operations occurred this year, in which the Turks, and the British and French were successful? What single achievement was made by the Russians? What was the cause of their success? What further preparations were made for the continuance of the struggle? By whose mediation was peace brought about? What were its terms?



ference held at Paris, to which England, France, Austria, Russia, Turkey, Sardinia, and Prussia, each sent two representatives, and peace was restored to the world. Having destroyed the sea works that had made Sebastopol the great harbour of the Euxine, and had enabled Russia to maintain her power of dominion over Turkey, the warriors of the Crimea, —British, French, and Sardinian,—returned to their native homes, where they were greeted with the hearty welcomes of their admiring countrymen. Not more admired were the Trojan heroes of old as they returned to Greece from the famous siege of Troy, than were the British soldiers who had so nobly fought at Sebastopol.

665. *Opening of parliament—Vote of thanks to the army and navy, &c.—General thanksgiving—Measures of the session—The annexation of Oude to the British empire, 1856.*—

At the commencement of this year, while the congress of Paris was recording the results of the war, there was a lull in the political atmosphere. Parliament was opened by the queen in person on the 31st of January. Her majesty remarked, "Since the close of the last session of parliament, the arms of the allies have achieved a signal and important success. Sebastopol, the great stronghold of Russia in the Black Sea, has yielded to the persevering constancy and to the daring bravery of the allied forces." Having assured the house that no efforts would be wanting to give vigour to the operations of the war, her majesty continued:—"I have deemed it my duty not to decline any overtures which might reasonably afford a prospect of a safe and honourable peace. Accordingly, when the emperor of Austria lately offered to myself and my august ally, the emperor of the French, to employ his good offices with the emperor of Russia, with a view to bring about an amicable adjustment of the matters at issue between the contending powers, I consented, in concert with my allies, to accept the offer thus made, and I have the satisfaction to inform you that certain conditions have been agreed upon which I hope may prove the foundation of a general treaty of peace." That hope was not illusive. As before recorded, a treaty was signed at Paris in March, and the sword which had been made red with slaughter was returned to its scabbard. The nation had as one man been eager for war, but when its object had been obtained,—when

Where was the treaty signed? How were the Crimean soldiers received on their return to their native homes?

665. When was parliament opened? Can you relate any portion of her majesty's speech on that occasion? How did the people regard the



the power of Russia was humbled,—the people rejoiced at the return of peace. In May a general thanksgiving was ordained, and deep and fervent was the note of gratitude heard in our churches and chapels for the restoration of peace to the world. The lords attended the thanksgiving service in Westminster Abbey, while the commons worshipped in St. Margaret's Church. This was on the 4th of May, and on the following day an address to her majesty was unanimously voted to this effect:—"That while the house would have deemed it their duty cheerfully to afford her majesty firm support, if it had been necessary, to continue the war, they nevertheless learned with joy and satisfaction that her majesty had been enabled to re-establish peace on conditions honourable to the crown, and which fully accomplished the great objects for which the war had been undertaken." The address also expressed to her majesty the satisfaction felt by the house in the facts that the conclusion of the war had been instrumental in binding the powers of Europe together in closer bonds of amity, and that, notwithstanding the great exertions made, the resources of the empire remained unimpaired. It concluded by expressing a hope that the peace concluded might, under the favour of Providence, long continue to shed its blessings over Europe, and that harmony among governments and friendly intercourse among nations might steadily promote the progress of civilization, and secure the welfare and happiness of mankind. A similar address was voted in the lords on the 8th of May, and on the same day a vote of thanks was passed in both houses to the army and navy and marines employed in the operations of the war, and also to the embodied militia. It seems somewhat singular that none of the officers employed in the Crimean war were singled out to receive parliamentary honours and rewards for their skill and their bravery. This war, however, had not redounded more to their honour than it had to those in the ranks. It was a soldiers' war, and but for the bravery of the non-commissioned officers and privates, the result would probably have been defeat instead of victory. Many for their distinguished bravery were raised from the ranks, and thousands received medals from the hand of the queen herself for their devotion in battle, of which they will be proud to the day of their deaths. One officer, however,

treaty of peace? On what day was there a general thanksgiving for peace? What was the character of the address to the queen on the subject of peace? What vote of thanks was passed in parliament? How were the soldiers generally rewarded? What particular officer



engaged in one of the episodes of this war, was brought prominently before parliament. This was general Williams, whose heroic defence of Kars at the head of an undisciplined Turkish army made him conspicuous among his compatriots for skill and bravery. Through a message from the crown to both houses, a pension of 1000*l.* per annum was awarded him for "eminent and distinguished services." The success with which the Crimean war had been crowned increased and confirmed the popularity of ministers. During this session the cabinet met with no marked opposition. The measures passed in this session were not characterized by any great depth of legislative wisdom, but they were numerous, and in some instances not unimportant. Many of them related to companies, improvements in towns and districts, railways, ports, and docks. Among other measures were the industrial and provident societies bill, the bankers' composition bill, the mercantile law amendment bill, the dissenters' marriages bill, the reformatory schools bill, and the divorce and matrimonial causes bill. The session was, indeed, memorable for diversified legislation, but some measures brought forward of greater importance than those passed were negatived. Such were the church-rate abolition bill and two bills for Ireland: namely, the grand juries and the poor-law bill. Parliament was prorogued by commission on the 29th of July, and her majesty's speech on that occasion as regards the passages relating to the war and its termination is of great historical interest:—

"When her majesty met you in parliament at the opening of the session, her majesty was engaged in co-operation with her allies in an ardent war having for its object matters of high European importance; and her majesty appealed to your loyalty and patriotism for the necessary means to carry on that war with the energy and vigour essential to success. You answered nobly the appeal made to you; and her majesty was enabled to prepare for the operations of the expected campaign naval and military forces worthy of the power and reputation of this country. Happily it became unnecessary to apply those forces to the purposes for which they had been destined. A treaty was concluded by which the objects for which the war had been undertaken were fully attained; and an honourable peace has saved Europe from the calamities of continued warfare. Her majesty trusts that the benefits resulting from that

received a pension? What effect had the success of the war as regards the ministry? What were the characteristics of the legislative measures passed this session? When was parliament prorogued? Can you relate the particulars of the speech delivered on that occasion? What



peace will be extensive and permanent, and that while the friendships and alliances which were cemented by common exertions during the contest will gain strength by mutual interests in peace, those asperities which inherently belong to conflict will give place to the confidence and good-will with which a faithful execution of engagements will inspire those who have learnt to respect each other as antagonists." Few royal speeches in parliament have possessed equal significance with this, for it proclaimed to the world that while the British people in all their majesty of might were ready to combat for oppressed nations, they were at the same time desirous of living in peace with all the world. The cause of the oppressed was this year taken up by the British power in India. By a treaty concluded in 1801 between the British government and the king of Oude, whose state lay on the eastern bank of the Ganges, between Cawnpore and Nepaul, the former guaranteed the dominions of the latter on these conditions:—that he should advise with and act in conformity to the council of the officers of the honourable company, and should establish in his dominions such a system of administration as should be conducive to the prosperity of his subjects, and calculated to secure their lives and properties. The kings of Oude had from the date of that treaty been loyal in their duty to the British government, but they had scandalously violated the rights of their own subjects. There was not a more corrupt or oppressive government in all the world than that of Lucknow. During the last two years it was known that 11,000 persons in Oude had perished by violent deaths. The revenue was always collected by an armed force attended by a battery of cannon; and from one year's end to another, the discharge of artillery was heard within its boundaries, directed against the defaulters to the government collectors. Moved by the complaints of the sufferers, the governor-general of India, lord Dalhousie, in this year proposed a treaty to the king of Oude, by which the sole and exclusive administration of the country was to be transferred to the East India company, with the right to the whole state revenue, burdened with a due provision to the reigning family, who were to retain their regal titles and enjoy their palaces and domains at Lucknow. These terms were rejected, and by a simple resolution of the governor-general in council, Oude was declared to be annexed to the British empire in India. The British forces immediately entered the country from Agra and Cawnpore, and took posses-

particular event happened this year in India? Can you relate the heads of what you have read about the annexation of Oude? What



sion of the capital and whole territories without resistance. The territories also of the rajah of Sattara were incorporated with the British dominions, as those of the rajah of Berar had already been in 1853. But, unhappily, the ease with which the annexation of Oude had been accomplished misled the government as to the precautions necessary to secure the acquisition. The natives of Oude were a nation of warriors, and not less than 70,000 of the men enlisted in the sepoy battalions of the company's service were drawn from the Oude territories. It was to a few battalions of these sepoys, with only a few hundred British, that the forts of Oude were intrusted, and the result, as future pages will show, was revolt, massacre, and bloodshed, to which history cannot offer a parallel.

666. *Opening of parliament—War with Persia and China—Resolution respecting the war with China carried against ministers—Parliament prorogued and dissolved—General election—The new parliament—Its measures—Revolt in India, &c., 1857.*—Parliament was opened by commission on the 3rd of February. In the queen's speech the note of war was again sounded. It was announced that this country was at war with Persia and China. With Persia the war was soon settled, for its armies fled at the approach of the British troops under Havelock, and negotiations were entered into by the Persian government which resulted in a treaty of peace. Great complaints were made in parliament that the members had not been consulted either when war was proclaimed against Persia, or now when peace was about to be established with that country, but lord Palmerston declined to enter into any discussion on the matter. But ministers were not allowed to pass over the war with China in such an independent manner. The origin of that war was a dispute in the latter part of the year 1856 between the British and Chinese authorities at Canton. A small vessel with a British register, and bearing the British flag, was boarded by a Chinese force, while at anchor near Canton, and twelve of the crew were seized. An apology was demanded by the British plenipotentiary at Canton, which Yeh, the Chinese governor, refused to give. Hostile proceedings followed: the forts in the Canton river were captured, the fortifications of Canton stormed, and a large number of war junks burned. Lord Elgin was subsequently sent out as her majesty's commissioner with a

error was committed in providing for the security of the acquisition?

666. With what countries was England at war at the opening of this year? What was the result of the war with Persia? On what motion



fleet and troops for the purpose of entering into negotiations with the emperor of China. This rupture with China gave rise to motions in both houses deprecating the interruption of amicable relations between her majesty's subjects and the Chinese authorities at Canton. That in the upper house, moved by lord Derby, was negatived, but that in the commons, moved by Mr. Cobden, was carried against ministers by a majority of sixteen, on which lord Palmerston informed the house that her majesty's government resolved to appeal to the constituencies by a dissolution of parliament. After voting the necessary supplies, therefore, and passing an income-tax of sevenpence in the pound for the current year, on the 21st of March parliament was prorogued, and soon after dissolved. The result of the election proved favourable to lord Palmerston's cabinet: it triumphed over a coalition of all its numerous opponents. Its apparent security, however, proved the means of its downfall; ministers threw away their commanding position by negligence and errors which their opponents were not slow in taking advantage of. The new parliament met on the 7th of May, on which occasion the queen's speech contained a reference to the treaty of peace with China, and to the mission of the earl of Elgin as plenipotentiary to China. The chief measures passed in this session related to transportation and penal servitude, joint-stock companies, commons' enclosure, industrial schools, joint-stock banking companies, reformatory schools, and probates and letters of administration. Numerous private bills were also passed for domestic improvements, &c., but, as in the session of 1856, no great legislative measure was either passed or brought forward by government. The session closed on the 28th of August, being prorogued as it had been opened, by commission. In the spring of this year a general peace prevailed throughout the British empire, and in England the people were happy and contented. A foreign minister, indeed, congratulated an English friend on the happy condition of a people which seemed to have no more pressing grievance than the presence of some intrusive cows in one of the public parks! But in the midst of this happiness and contentment there was news being wafted over the mighty waters which struck terror and alarm into the hearts of the nation. This was a mutiny in India. The annexation

were ministers defeated? What was the result? In what position were ministers after the general election? How did they throw away their commanding position? When did the new parliament meet? Of what nature were the measures passed this session? When was parliament prorogued? In what state was the British empire at the opening of this year? By what particular news was the country alarmed?



of Oude in 1856 to the British empire had produced a feeling of deep and dangerous discontent in the population. This was shared by the sepoy of the Bengal army who were natives of Oude. A still larger proportion of the Bengal army were Brahmins of high class, who were ready to take offence at anything which might seem to have the least tendency to deprive them of that superiority of caste on which they prided themselves. Now it so happened at about the time that Oude was annexed to the British empire that a large supply of Enfield rifles had been sent to India from England, the cartridges of which were made up of greased paper. A report was spread among the native troops that the paper was greased with a mixture of cow's fat and hog's lard: a composition which rendered the cartridges offensive to the Hindoo, who regards the cow with religious veneration, and to the Mahomedan, who looks upon the hog with abhorrence. The whole native army, therefore, from these causes became universally disaffected towards the British government. Moreover, there was an old Hindoo prophecy that in the hundredth year after its foundation by the battle of Plassy the rule of the East India company should be swept away. And the time seemed favourable for effecting that consummation, as the East India company was known to be at war with Persia, and Great Britain was supposed by the natives to be at war with China. A conspiracy was therefore formed for the subversion of the British government in India. Insubordination had been displayed early in the year, but in May an open mutiny broke out which spread through all the native forces in India. It was at Meerut that the mutiny first occurred, and the mutineers, after committing great excesses, took possession of Delhi, the ancient capital of the Mogul emperors of Hindustan, where the last successor of the imperial line was still alive. At Delhi a fearful massacre of Europeans took place; not one within a day or two escaped death. As soon as the news of this rebellion was received, precautions were taken by the authorities to prevent many of the native troops from joining by depriving them of their arms and ammunition. This was effected at Lahore, Ferozepore, and Peshawur, and at several other places where mutinies occurred they were quickly suppressed. But it was not so at Lucknow and Cawnpore. At Lucknow the mutineers took possession of the city and laid siege to the British residency, while at Cawnpore the native troops, under the

What were the causes of the Indian mutiny? What were its early features? What measures were taken by the Indian government to stem the mutiny? Under whose auspices did the massacres at Cawn-



command of Nana Sahib, committed the most revolting massacres. Men, women, and children were slain without mercy, and but few Europeans escaped to tell the tale. But an avenger quickly appeared upon the field of slaughter. On the 29th of May, colonel Havelock arrived at Bombay from the Persian Gulf, with the 78th Highlanders and the queen's 64th, which had formed part of his division in Persia. Being raised to the rank of brigadier-general, Havelock took the command, and with about 1000 European troops and 150 Sikhs, he fell upon the rebels under Nana Sahib near Cawnpore, and defeated them, killing a great number and capturing six guns. Nana Sahib retreated to Bithoor, but Havelock marched after him, and on arriving there found the palace of Bithoor on fire and the enemy gone. The hero now returned to Cawnpore, but being joined by reinforcements he again pursued the mutineers. In nine days he had fought and won four battles, and taken more than forty guns. Twice he essayed to relieve Lucknow, but, although he defeated the enemy in its vicinity, from the rains, from the heat, and above all from the cholera which struck down his exhausted soldiers, he was compelled to withdraw to Munghowur. Again he defeated the enemy near Cawnpore, and at Bithoor, but Nana Sahib had by this time collected such a large force round Cawnpore that he was obliged to act on the defensive. This was in July, but at length in September, having received reinforcements, general Havelock again advanced to the relief of the besieged in the residency at Lucknow. This time he was successful. With heroic courage his army cut a way through the numerous forces of the enemy on their route and in the streets of Lucknow; and after a succession of desperate conflicts among loop-holed houses, the residency was reached. On reaching it, however, it was found impossible to carry away the sick and wounded, and women and children, through the numerous forces of mutineers in and around Lucknow, and it was therefore determined to wait for further relief. That relief came in November. Sir Colin Campbell, who had been appointed commander-in-chief of the forces in India, arrived at Calcutta in August, and having made his preparations, he advanced on Lucknow, stormed it, and everywhere drove the enemy before him. Those in the residency were saved, but in the course of the siege many had

pore take place? Who took the command against the mutineers in that part? Can you relate the achievements of Havelock? When did he reach the residency at Lucknow? Why did he remain there? Who was sent from England to take the command of the Indian army? What was his first achievement? When did Havelock die, and what



been slain, and numbers had perished from want and disease. The brave and noble Havelock himself died from exhaustion and disease after the storming of Lucknow, eight days after he had received the tidings that he had been created a knight commander of the bath. Two days after his death the queen created him a baronet, a title which was transferred to his son, who was also in the army. Before the close of the year, sir Colin Campbell gained several other victories over the enemy; but the rebellion was so wide-spread and formidable that when the year died out the mutineers were everywhere in arms. In the meantime, however, about the same time that Havelock was cleaving his way through the rebels at Lucknow, another British force under general Nicholson and brigadier Jones had carried Delhi by assault, and had taken the king of Delhi prisoner. The king's son and grandson, who had been participators in the massacre and instigators of the mutinies, were both slain, and thus all further hope of the restoration of the Mogul dynasty was destroyed. In the Lower Punjaub, also, at Mooltan, several regiments of native infantry were disarmed, by which that important city, which commanded the river communication with Bombay, from whence alone reinforcements could arrive, was secured. It was by this operation chiefly that the British troops were enabled to assemble in sufficient force to capture Delhi. There was hope, therefore, at the end of this year, that, notwithstanding the misfortunes which had occurred, and the dangers that still existed, the fortune of England would still maintain itself in India.

667. *Opening of parliament—Marriage of the princess royal—Resignation of ministers—Earl of Derby prime minister—The fall of the East India company—Measures of the session—The Indian mutiny—The war with China concluded, 1858.*  
—An extraordinary session of parliament was opened by the queen in person on the 3rd of December, 1857, the purpose of which was thus stated in her majesty's speech:—"The failure of certain joint-stock banks and of some commercial firms produced such an extent of distrust as led me to authorize my ministers to recommend to the directors of the bank of England the adoption of a course of proceeding which appeared necessary for allaying the prevalent alarm. As that course has involved a departure from the existing

honours were conferred upon him? Did sir Colin Campbell gain any other victories this year? By whom was Delhi captured? How was Mooltan secured? What feelings existed in England at the close of this year respecting the fate of India?

667. For what particular purpose was parliament convened at the



law, a bill for indemnifying those who advised and those who adopted it, will be submitted for your consideration." The bank issues indemnity bill passed both houses, and received the royal sanction within nine days, and the house then adjourned till the 4th of February, 1858. Before the legislature re-assembled, an interesting event occurred relative to the royal family. On the 25th of January, the princess royal of England was married to prince Frederick William of Prussia, her royal highness being then only in the eighteenth year of her age. Addresses of congratulation were voted in both houses to her majesty on this occasion with cordial unanimity, and the princess left her native land with the good wishes of the whole community. About this time, attempts were made upon the life of the emperor of the French, which were said to have been devised by some refugees in England. There were some grounds for this, but neither the government nor the people of England were in the least involved in the matter. Nevertheless, Louis Napoleon called upon government to provide a remedy for such refugee conspiracies, and assertions were made in France deeply offensive to the feelings of the English people. Had government been wise, they would have refused to attempt to legislate on such a subject, but instead of this, Lord Palmerston, obedient to the dictates of Louis Napoleon, moved for leave to bring in a bill to amend the law relating to conspiracy for the commission of murder. Leave was given to bring in this bill, but on the second reading an amendment was moved to the effect that while the house had heard with much concern that recent attempts had been made upon the life of Louis Napoleon, and while it expressed its detestation of such atrocities, and was ever ready to assist in remedying any defects in the criminal law proved to exist, it nevertheless regretted that, previously to inviting the house to amend the law of conspiracy, her majesty's government had not made some reply to the despatch received from the French government relative to that subject. This amendment was carried, and considering this as a vote of censure, lord Palmerston and his colleagues resigned office. The earl of Derby now became premier, and Mr. Disraeli became the leader in the house of commons, as chancellor of the exchequer. The first act of the new ministry was to enter into a friendly correspondence concerning the painful close of 1857? When did it re-assemble? What marriage took place in the royal family? How did parliament act on that occasion? On what particular subject were ministers defeated? What was the result of that defeat? Who became premier? What great measure was



misconceptions which had occurred between France and England, and that correspondence concluded in all honour and good feeling on both sides. During this session, an act was passed by which the power of the East India company passed into an executive nominated by the house of commons. The rule of that company became extinct. This event was loudly applauded by the multitude, but it excited very different feelings in the reflecting portion of the community. Whatever evils might have attended the rule of that company, its high achievements more than counterbalanced them, and it is certain that when they resigned their power, they handed a magnificent empire over to the British executive. The monuments of that company will long outlive it, and the names of the great men it had produced, from Clive to Havelock, will adorn the roll of British history to the end of time. But—

“So fails, so languishes, grows dim, and dies  
All that this world is proud of. From their spheres  
The stars of human glory are cast down :  
Perish the roses and the flowers of kings,  
Princes, and emperors, and the crowns and palms  
Of all the mighty, withered and consumed.”

“The government of India bill” was the great measure of the session, but many other useful measures were passed, of a similar character to those passed in the preceding sessions; namely, for the amendment of the laws, the improvement of agriculture, and of towns and districts, internal communications, navigation, and for special objects and private regulations. Among the latter were bills relating to the municipal franchise, stamp duties on drafts, copyright of designs; joint-stock companies; county-court districts; local government; public health; friendly societies; reformatory schools in Ireland; and art unions. It was during this session that Jews were first permitted to sit as members in the house of commons, being simply required on taking their seats, to take the oath of allegiance, omitting the words “on the true faith of a christian.” So far as legislation was concerned, indeed, the Derby ministry this year proved themselves more competent than their predecessors, and the session after their accession to office passed off without any great display of political antagonism. The ability and popular manners of some of the members of the cabinet reconciled not only the house of commons, but the country at large to the Derby government? What other measures were passed this session? In what position were ministers? Can you relate what



large, to the continuance of an administration professedly and in reality conservative. Parliament was prorogued on the 2nd of August. At this time the rebellion in India had received a blow which may be said to have crushed it beneath the feet of the British power. Having rescued the garrison besieged in the residency, sir Colin Campbell made great preparations for the final conquest of the entire city of Lucknow, and the complete dispersion of the large mass of insurgents there congregated. In the meantime they were active in strengthening their defences, and engaged in erecting additional ones to those they already possessed. But it was in vain that they tried to compete with the British arms. By the 19th of March every stronghold possessed by them was successfully stormed, and the capture of Lucknow was completed. The forces of the insurgents were everywhere defeated, and the two great centres of insurrection, Delhi and Lucknow, having been captured, and the concentrated masses of mutineers having been broken and scattered far and wide, it only remained to crush the groups of mutineers who were entrenched in some of the strongholds of Central India and Rajpootana, and other bodies which moved about the country for purposes of plunder. This was a work of some difficulty, but it was accomplished during the years 1858 and 1859, and peace was restored to India. Great exertions were made by the British forces to capture that monster in human form, Nana Sahib, but he eluded their vigilance, and is said to have died among his own followers. The history of the world does not record such a wide-spread and formidable rebellion as that which occurred in India, and no power could have crushed such a rebellion but that of Great Britain. The consummate skill of the British officers, and the indomitable courage of the British and native soldiers—the Sikhs and Ghorkas—were such as to command the admiration of the world. During this terrible mutiny many able British officers were cut off by the sword and disease, among whom may be mentioned general Nicholson, sir Hugh Wheeler, sir Henry Lawrence, major Banks, major Hodson, sir William Peel, general Anson, and—that greatest of all the British heroes in India—the noble and chivalrous Havelock. This year witnessed the conclusion of the war in China. Early in January the English and French forces entered Canton, took possession of the treasury, and captured Yeh the governor and the other chief authorities of the city. Canton was held by the British and French as a

you have read about the mutiny in India and its suppression? What particular event happened in China? How was a treaty of peace



material guarantee till the Chinese emperor complied with the demands of the allies. In order to enforce those demands, the English and French plenipotentiaries, who were joined by those of America and Russia, sailed up the Peiho, after capturing some batteries near its mouth, as far as Tien-tsin, within eighty miles of the imperial city of Peking. Here they were met by two Chinese commissioners, and a treaty of peace was concluded between Great Britain and China, the principal articles of which were—that there should be a British and a Chinese minister at the courts of Peking and St. James's respectively; that Christianity should be tolerated throughout the Chinese empire; that additional ports should be opened for commerce; that British subjects should be allowed, with a consul's passport, to visit any part of the Chinese empire; that British ships of war might visit any of the Chinese ports; and that measures should be concerted for the suppression of piracy. Other clauses of this treaty related to transit duties and tariff. By this treaty the war with China was concluded, but the treaty had to be ratified by the emperor, and, as will be seen in the next section, that ratification was withheld, which led to renewed hostilities.

668. *Recent events, and the state of the nation, 1859–60.*—The history of 1859 is replete with stirring events, but is not marked by any important legislation. The question of reform had been opened by its great champion, lord John Russell, some ten years before, when his government was rapidly declining in popularity and power. That question had been carefully nursed by him and his party, and at the time of the downfall of the Palmerston cabinet it had again become the great question of the day. It was evident that reform in parliament must be made a cabinet measure, and the Derby ministry promised to bring it forward in the session of 1859. That pledge was redeemed on the 3rd of February, on which day a reform bill was laid before the house of commons. It could scarcely have been expected that a reform bill brought forward by a conservative government, however wise and comprehensive it might have been, would not have encountered some opposition; but its framers were not prepared for the storm it raised throughout the country. Everywhere it was denounced as insulting and fraudulent, although many of its features were conceived in a liberal spirit which would have done honour to the most ardent reformer. Its second reading was moved by Mr.

obtained, and what were its terms?

668. What question was the prevailing topic of the day at the opening of 1859? How did the Derby ministry act respecting it? What



Disraeli on the 21st of March, and an imposing debate ensued. During ten long nights of sitting, the battle of words was waged between the contending parties; but at length, late one spring morning, after a discussion embittered by many personalities, the house divided, and government were left in a minority. On their defeat they appealed to the country: parliament was prorogued and dissolved, and there was a general election. The election was one of the most stirring which had taken place for some years, but it was chiefly distinguished for the bribery and corruption which everywhere prevailed. Conservatives and whigs alike were lavish with their money, and the voters made no scruple at putting it into their pockets. Who paid the best was the successful candidate, while he who was niggardly was rejected. At this general election, indeed, the abuses of a past era were unblushingly revived. Its result was favourable to ministers: twenty-five seats additional were secured for the conservatives. But this addition was not sufficient. Honest and talented though it might be, the Derby ministry was surrounded by difficulties, and their bark was soon swamped in the rough sea of politics. At this time there was war between France and Sardinia on the one side and Austria on the other. Louis Napoleon was fighting for an idea, that is, for the aggrandizement of his country and his dynasty; the king of Sardinia had drawn the sword for an extension of power over Italy; and Austria was doing battle to preserve its old tyranny over the Italian states. To prevent this war the Derby government made every effort by friendly remonstrance, appealing to their prudence and moderation, but

"Vainlier than the hen

To her false daughters in the pool; for none  
Regarded."

Any other diplomatic course would doubtless have produced the same result, for all the powers, though professing to desire peace, were bent on war; but the foreign minister, lord Malmesbury, committed a grave error in adopting an unfriendly tone to the only belligerent who to a reasonable cause of war added an intelligible ulterior policy. It is true that the English ministers alternately reproved the belligerents, but their severest reproofs were directed against the king of Sardinia. And this was done against the general

was the fate of their reform bill? What was the consequence of its rejection? What were the characteristics of the general election? What were the results of the election? When did the new parliament



opinion of the English nation, who it was well known justified the effort of the Italian people to throw off the yoke of Austria. This was fatal to the cabinet. The new parliament assembled on the 7th of June, and on the address, which exhibited the views of government on the Italian war, an amendment was moved which was carried, and ministers resigned. A new cabinet was formed under the premiership of lord Palmerston, who united with him lord John Russell as foreign secretary, and Mr. Gladstone as chancellor of the exchequer. This ministry at the opening of the year 1860 was still in existence, but how long the Palmerston cabinet will continue to rule the country cannot be foreseen. It is certain, however, that it stands in considerable jeopardy. Rumours of dissensions in the cabinet have been circulated, and another reform bill is in preparation as a cabinet measure, which is likely to administer to its downfall. Moreover, the Italian question still remains unsettled, and although the views of the government as enunciated by the foreign secretary coincide with the views of the nation, it is impossible to foresee the result of that question either as regards the Palmerston cabinet or the fate of Europe. That war is one of the most remarkable on record. It was attended with the most brilliant successes on the part of France and Sardinia; but although Louis Napoleon had at the outset solemnly declared that he would not sheath the sword till Italy was free from the Alps to the Adriatic, and everything bade fair for the accomplishment of that purpose, yet, after having gained a great battle at Solferino over the Austrians, on a sudden he had an interview with the emperor of Austria at Villafranca, and entered into a treaty with him by which he left Venice in chains, and the great Hapsburg fortifications—the famous quadrangle and keys of Italy—intact. All Italy stood aghast at this sudden termination of the war, and what will be her future fate time only can unfold. All her sons are armed to the teeth, and the great powers of Europe still stand aloof from the quarrel. A congress has been projected for the settlement of the affairs of Italy, but no time for its meeting has yet been fixed, and it seems probable that ere it meets the sword will be again drawn, and the fair fields of Italy again drenched with the blood of its sons and its enemies. A brand of contention has been thrown into the council-chambers of Europe respecting the papal power

meet? What question sealed the fate of ministers? Who was the successor to lord Derby? In what position did ministers stand at the close of this history? What was the result of the Italian war? What



in Italy, which augurs doubtfully for the long-heralded conciliation of Paris. In China diplomatic complications arose after the treaty at Tien-tsin, which led to a serious misadventure. That treaty seems to have created rather a contingent right of coercion than a reliable contract between the two governments. Mr. Bruce was appointed ambassador under the terms of that treaty, and on his arrival at Shanghai he found that his reception at Peking would, if possible, be evaded. After much fruitless negotiation, therefore, he procured the escort of an English squadron, and admiral Hope, at his request, attempted to force the entrance to the Peiho, which was unsuccessful. On a sudden masked batteries opened fire on his squadron, and notwithstanding the desperate gallantry of himself and his officers and men, he was repulsed with considerable loss. This act of treachery called for retaliation.

669. *War with China—Events in Italy—Savoy and Nice annexed to France.—Treaty of Commerce between England and France.—The origin of the Rifle Volunteers, &c., 1860.*—It was manifest that no treaty with the Chinese would prove binding unless it was fully demonstrated that it was vain for the soldiers of the Celestial empire to contend with those of Europe. Accordingly British and French troops—for France again became the close ally of England—were sent in great force to China to compel the observance of the solemn treaty concluded at Tien-tsin, and to revenge the treachery at Peiho. Forts had been erected at the mouth of that river, and were garrisoned with the bravest troops of the Empire to prevent their progress. But it was in vain. After a determined resistance, and a great slaughter of the Chinese, the Taku forts were captured; and those who escaped death fled for their lives. The allies, who had lost in this battle about four hundred only, killed and wounded, now pushed forward and occupied Tien-tsin. Still there were no signs of submission on the part of the Chinese government, and the ambassadors of England and France with the army proceeded towards Peking. In their route the Tartar cavalry hovered around them, but dared not meet them in battle. Some English and French civilians and officers were sent with a flag of truce to the Chinese commander, but they were treacherously seized; and, as was afterwards discovered, so cruelly maltreated, that some of them perished. In revenge for this fresh act of treachery, on the arrival of the allies

669. What forces united to revenge the treachery of the Chinese?



at Peking the emperor's summer palace was pillaged and destroyed by fire, and had not those who were still alive in the hands of the Chinese been delivered up, it is probable that Peking itself would have been bombarded and destroyed. At length, however, the Chinese government, taught wisdom by defeats, yielded. Peace was purchased by a further cession of territories and privileges to the two Powers, and by an indemnity; since which time the treaty of Tien-tsin, with additional clauses, has been strictly observed. Ambassadors are allowed to reside at Peking in peace; and it seems probable that the young emperor who now reigns, and who succeeded to the throne in the year A.D. 1861, will delegate ambassadors to the courts of both France and England. Meanwhile great and stirring events had again taken place in Italy. Italian unity was the motto of its people, and the sword was drawn for its accomplishment. The two Sicilies groaned under the yoke of Ferdinand II., and led by Garibaldi, that redoubtable hero of modern days, his Italian followers, aided by mercenaries from England and other quarters—who fought partly from sympathy with the oppressed, and partly for gold and glory—after a series of sieges and battles drove Ferdinand into exile, and set the Sicilians free. The two Sicilies were subsequently, by the almost unanimous vote of its people, annexed to Sardinia, and they now form a portion of Victor Emmanuel's flourishing kingdom. It was thought that Rome would have shared the fate of the Two Sicilies, but the pontiff and his patrimony were protected by French soldiers sent for that purpose by Louis Napoleon, and Garibaldi sheathed his sword and returned to his island home in Caprera. But Italian unity is far from being perfected. Venice and Rome still remain to complete it, and it seems probable that their conquest may ere long be attempted. But while Victor Emmanuel gained the two Sicilies by war, he this year lost Nice and Savoy by treaty: they were annexed to France. About the same time a treaty of a far more glorious character was entered into between England and France: a treaty which had for its object the extension of the commercial intercourse between the two countries, and thus to draw still closer the bonds of friendly alliance between their populations. Yet while the two governments were thus

Relate the particulars of the operations of the allied armies. What was the final result of the war in China? What events had, during the war in China, taken place in Italy? By whose protection did Rome escape the fate of the two Sicilies? What territories did the king of Sardinia this year lose by treaty? What particular treaty was



drawing closer in bonds of amity, as Louis Napoleon had been for some time increasing his army, and enlarging beyond due proportions his navy, a fear of French invasion, real or pretended, was abroad, and the English people everywhere united in creating bodies of rifle volunteers to fight for their "hearths and homes." Such a force has been raised and organized, and to such perfection has rifle practice attained, that the British volunteers vie in strength, discipline, and skill with the regular army, and thus additional security is given to our island home: for the best way to preserve peace is to be prepared for war. Such were the leading events of the year A.D. 1860.

670. *The State of Europe at this period.—Affairs of Italy.—Financial Crisis in France.—Parliamentary measures: the Paper Duty abolished.—The war in America: its origin and progress.—Threatened war between England and America: its cause and result.—Death of His Royal Highness Prince Albert, 1861.*—At the commencement of the year A.D. 1861 in Europe there was universal peace. There were rumours of war both in Hungary and Venetia, but as Italy was not yet fully armed, and as the Hungarians were not ripe for their expected revolt against Austria, the sword still remained sheathed. In Italy the progress of unity has been steadily continued, and the new kingdom of Victor Emmanuel, who is now the recognized king of Italy by England and France, and by several Powers of second rank, has become in a great measure consolidated. In some of the more barbarous Neapolitan districts a chronic anarchy prevailed, aided by brigands under the auspices of priests and Bourbon agents, but it was not formidable to the newly-erected kingdoms, and at the close of the year, brigandage had lost much of its vitality by the capture and death of some of its lawless bands. But the new kingdom of Italy suffered a great loss during this summer in the death of Count Cavour who had been the chief agent in the regeneration of his country. He died when his work was all but accomplished; leaving behind him the well-earned reputation of being the first Italian statesman of his time. In France during this year the recent

this year entered into between England and France? Why was there a fear of French invasion at this period? How did the English people act on this occasion? What have you read about the rifle volunteers?

670. In what state was Europe at the commencement of the year A.D. 1861? Tell me what you have read about Italy and Victor Emmanuel at this period. What loss did the new kingdom of Italy sustain during this year? What reputation had Count Cavour earned



lavish expenditure of the naval and military establishments combined with the neglect or inability of the government to increase taxation in proportion to expenditure, there has been a financial crisis which still exists, and which can only be surmounted by wise measures of taxation and retrenchment. Since the fall of the monarchy, indeed, the expenditure of the present dynasty has exceeded the revenue by about two hundred millions sterling, which accumulated deficit must be provided for to the extent of forty millions sterling annually : a sum which may be found difficult to obtain. As regards England the year A.D. 1861 passed over till near its close in uneventful domestic tranquillity. The parliamentary session was free from a ministerial crisis. There was no serious Reform bill brought in, and it passed away almost without a party division. In the budget of the present year there was no deficit to deal with,—and its chief features consisted in the abolition of that obnoxious impost on knowledge—the Paper Duty; and the fixing of the no less obnoxious Income-tax at ninepence in the pound. The Opposition proposed the repeal of the war duty on tea instead of the abolition of the tax on paper, but parliament represented the wish of the country not in balancing paper against tea but in preferring the government of Lord Palmerston to that of Earl Derby, and the motion was lost by a considerable majority. While, indeed, the professed Opposition includes nearly half the House of Commons, the government of Lord Palmerston seems as firmly seated as ever. One event towards the close of the year has greatly added to its stability. While Europe was at peace, and while the Italian States were working out the modern doctrine of Unity, the great American Federation, in spite of identity of race, language, and laws, suddenly burst asunder. For many years the conduct of the North had been unfaithful, hostile, dangerous, and insulting towards her brethren of the South, and when Abraham Lincoln was elected president in November, A.D. 1860, it became evident that the secession long contemplated by the South would for himself? Tell me what you have read about a financial crisis in France : its cause and effect. In what state was England during the greater part of this year? Relate what you have read about the parliamentary session of the year, and what the chief features of the budget were. What tax did the Opposition propose to abolish instead of that on paper? Why was that proposition negatived? In what position did Lord Palmerston's government stand at the close of the year A.D. 1861? What particular event happened in America at this period? Relate what you have read about the secession of the South from the North. To what did this secession lead? Has the North



soon prove an accomplished fact. It was not the mere election of that republican president that led to the rebellion: by demonstrating the full attainment of power by the Northern party, *that* only determined the time at which the secession should take place. That time was the commencement of the year, A.D. 1861, when South Carolina, by the vote of a convention proclaimed her resumption of separate independence as a sovereign State. Five other States, on the coast of the Mexican Gulf, followed her example, and in a meeting at Charleston, Jefferson Davis was proclaimed first president of the Confederate States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, and Texas. A regular government was organized, and a formidable army raised to support that government. This was the signal for war. The North, maintaining that her union with the South should be indissoluble, determined by force of arms to reduce the Southerners to submission. Several months were spent in preparation, and at length the struggle commenced. As yet, however, the Northern army occupies only a small portion of the Southern frontier—a point where no resistance was offered, and they have not been able to advance beyond that first step. Early in August, the Federal army incurred an ignominious defeat in an assault on the enemy's position on the south of the Potomac; and, indeed, in the greater number of the encounters which have as yet occurred, the Southern army has been victorious. No one, indeed, supposes that the South can ever be conquered by the armies of the North, however numerous they may be. With a vast and fruitful territory, of which they have almost the entire possession, and with a powerful army, brave, hardy, united, and animated by the most burning hatred towards those who seek to subdue them, the Southern States, in all human probability, will succeed in establishing full and complete independence. This civil war is as strange as it is unnatural, and its progress has been watched by all Europe, and especially by England, with absorbing and almost exclusive curiosity. This is natural, for the angry disappointment of the North at its non-success may, at any moment, lead to a war between England and the American Federation. Indeed, towards the close of the year that war seemed inevitable. The

made any progress in its attempt to subjugate the South? Can you relate what you have read about this unnatural contest? What is the probable result of this civil war in America? How has that war been watched by Europe, and especially by England? Why is the civil war in America so narrowly watched by England? Now tell me all you



Confederates of the South having sent two commissioners, one to England, and the other to France, during their passage to Europe they were forcibly taken from an English mail packet by Captain Wilkes, the commander of an American war steamer, and taken to New York, from whence they were sent as prisoners to Fort Warren. This lawless act was loudly applauded in the North, and its perpetrator was rewarded by the freedom of many towns in Massachusetts, and even received a vote of thanks from the House of Representatives. The Northerners were jubilant at the insult thus offered to the British Lion; and the press teemed with defiant language, if that Lion should show his teeth. There was to be a war in which, if England should dare to seek redress, she should sink in the scale of nations to rise no more! But England heeded not the offensive bluster of American statesmen and journalists. On receiving the news of the seizure of the *Trent*, indignation seized upon all classes; and government having fully ascertained from the law officers of the Crown, that the act was as illegal as it was insulting, promptly resolved to exact due reparation. Despatches were forthwith sent to Lord Lyons, the English ambassador at Washington, instructing him to demand the release of the Confederate commissioners and an ample apology for the wrong committed; and in case of a refusal, he was directed instantly to return to England. Great preparations were at the same time made for war with the American Federation. Troops and batteries were sent to Canada, and ships of war were manned at every port ready for action. Great excitement prevailed in the interval of the reply from the Washington Cabinet: but, at length, it came. Notwithstanding the warlike attitude of the Northern people, President Lincoln could not afford to have two wars on his hands at one time, and Lord Lyons was politely informed that the Southern commissioners would be delivered up to him, "when and where he pleased." It was this event that tended to increase the stability of Lord Palmerston's administration; for its conduct on this occasion met with the approval of the people generally. And now this history closes with a tale of sorrow; for in the midst of the excitement caused by the expectation

have read about an incident which nearly led to a war between England and America: how the Northerners provoked the English government and people to make ready for battle; and how the Washington Cabinet averted the blow which the British people were prepared to strike. You have stated that great excitement prevailed in England in the expectation of war with America: what other



of a war with America, another feeling seized upon the hearts of all classes of society—that of grief. His Royal Highness the Prince Consort had endeared himself by his many virtues and excellences to all her Majesty's subjects. As the head of a family, he was a bright example to the nation, and the admirable manner in which for nearly twenty-two years he had sustained the enviable and responsible position of husband to our beloved queen, won for him golden opinions both at home and abroad. His rare attainments, also, had exalted him in the sight of the people; while his unwearied labours for the advancement of art and science, and everything that was good and beautiful, begat their admiration and love. He it was, who, by his influence chiefly, brought about the great Exhibition of the year A.D. 1851; and this year he had successfully laid the foundation for a similar project which, in the year A.D. 1862, is still further intended to testify to the superiority of the blessings of peace over the calamities of war. Preferring the arts of civilization to those of statecraft, he bent his powerful mind to the development of those vast resources which prevail amongst us; and he took the lead in striving to improve the intellectual, moral, social, and religious condition of her Majesty's subjects. Everything he touched he adorned; and it was fondly hoped that he might long be spared to the queen and the country. But God's ways are not our ways. On the 14th of December, after a few days' illness, and in the fulness of ripened manhood—he, the guide and stay of the royal household, and the honour of the country he had made his own, whose welfare he had so ardently sought, and which he so deeply loved, breathed his last in the royal residence of Windsor. Bells on every hand tolled the knell of his departure from amongst us; pulpits rang with the mournful intelligence; and the wild, blank, tearful look on all faces told far more eloquently than a thousand words, that, as a people, we were bowed down with the weight of an unlooked-for, and heartfelt sorrow. And so the year A.D. 1861 ended in mourning: the queen wept as a widow, and her people mingled their tears with hers; for never was there a death more sincerely lamented than that of the great and good and noble Prince Albert!

feeling at the same time seized upon the hearts of the people? What event caused that grief? When and where did Prince Albert die? Rehearse all you have read about this good prince: why he was so much beloved by the nation, and why so deeply and universally lamented.



669. The death of Prince Albert cast a gloom over the nation not quickly chased away. When Parliament met in the year A.D. 1862, addresses of condolence to the queen were voted unanimously: all parties paying eloquent tribute to the good man's memory. Public bodies from all parts of the kingdom followed the example set them by Parliament. Nor was the sympathy confined to England: emperors and kings shared in the deep sorrow which had overtaken their illustrious contemporary; and *their* people sorrowed with *hers*. In Parliament there was but little done during the remainder of the session. The great event of this year was the International Exhibition, which the departed prince had so ardently laboured to bring to pass. That was opened by commission. There was great magnificence displayed on the occasion; but the absence of royalty was keenly felt, and the public sorrow welled out afresh at the remembrance of him who had promoted the undertaking by his genius and labours. It proved, however, a great success. The good city of London became crowded with people from all parts of the kingdom and the world. Men of every tongue and clime poured into its great heart and arteries; and its streets became a perfect Babel of languages. Thousands upon thousands daily wended their way to the "world's great fair" at Kensington, to see the marvels it displayed. The queen, too, stifling her sorrows, visited it in private, and her people were glad. And so this great event passed away; only to be remembered in history. The year, also, passed away in peace; although England was still menaced with war by the Federals of America; but the British Lion stood, up to the time this history closes, *i. e.* March 10th, 1863—looking on majestically, heedless of their impotent rage. That day is a memorable one in the annals of England. In February it was announced in Parliament that a treaty of marriage had been concluded between the Prince of Wales and the Princess Alexandra of Denmark. The fair Dane arrived at Gravesend on the 7th of March, and proceeded to the royal castle at Windsor, where, in the chapel royal, three days after, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, and Alexandra, Princess of Denmark, were united in wedlock. The ceremony was followed by a flood of congratulatory addresses; magnificent wedding presents; and one universal wish that the royal bridegroom and his bride might live long in blissful union.

669. Tell me what further you have read about the death of Prince Albert. What was the great event of A.D. 1862? Relate what you have read about it. What notable event took place in March A.D. 1863?



670. *Notable incidents in this reign unnoticed in the text.*

During the autumn of 1837 the great corporation of the city of London demonstrated its loyalty to the crown in a magnificent entertainment which was given to the queen in Guildhall on the 9th of November. Her reception along the streets of London was a complete ovation, for she was greeted as she passed on her way with the most enthusiastic cheers. In the evening a brilliant illumination appeared throughout the whole line of her passage, and nothing was wanting to give the utmost possible splendour to the pageant.

In 1838 a new rate of postage came into operation, by which the parliamentary privilege of franking was abolished, and the uniform rate of one penny was charged for every letter under a certain weight. The act which was passed for the purpose of reducing and regulating the postage of letters has been one of great importance to the whole community, social and commercial.

The year 1844 was marked by royal visits. In the autumn her majesty and prince Albert visited Louis Philippe, king of the French, in his own dominions, and subsequently the French monarch returned the visit by becoming the guest of the queen. Her majesty was also visited by the king of Saxony and the emperor of Russia. The queen afterwards made a tour to Germany, and on her return again visited Louis Philippe.

In the summer of 1845 the *Erebus* and *Terror*, under sir John Franklin, departed to the Arctic regions on a voyage of discovery. This voyage proved a fatal one to its brave commander and its crews. For many years the fate of sir John Franklin was enshrouded in mystery. Several expeditions were fitted out to search for the lost navigator, but it was in vain, until at length, in 1859, Captain M'Clintock, who commanded the last expedition, returned with indubitable proofs that sir John and his crews had perished, and that the noble ships in which they had sailed had been destroyed in those ice-bound regions.

In the autumn of 1848 that fatal scourge, the cholera, again reached the shores of England. It was especially manifested in the North, where hundreds of victims fell a prey to its ravages. In 1849 it re-appeared simultaneously in all parts of the kingdom, visiting alike those spots usually considered most healthy, and those from which disease is rarely absent. It swept away both rich and poor, and, as in 1832, thousands died, the mortality being distributed over the whole face of the country, but being most marked in densely-populated towns.

In the year 1851, while England was holiday-keeping at the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park, our countrymen at the antipodes were thrown into a state of the strongest excitement by the announcement which was made by the authorities at Sydney of rich gold-fields in Australia. In the brief interval that has elapsed, many millions sterling have been extracted from superficial deposits which as yet show no marked signs of exhaustion. The effects of this discovery were the increase of wealth and population: emigration became the order of the

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670. What grand entertainment was given to the queen in 1837? How were the rates of postage altered in 1838? What particular event marked the year 1844? When did sir John Franklin sail to the Arctic regions, and when was his fate discovered, and by whom? When did the cholera again visit England, and what were its features? When was gold first discovered in Australia, and what were its effects? For



day, and thousands still leave the shores of England for this El Dorado. The words of poetic genius were more than realized :—" Methinks, as I gaze around I see the scheme of the All-beneficent Father disentangling itself through the troubled history of mankind. How mysteriously while Europe rears its populations and fulfils its civilizing missions, these realms which have been concealed from its eyes divulged to us, just as civilization needs the solution to its problem, a vent for feverish energies baffled in the crowd, offering bread to the famished, hope to the desperate, in very truth enabling the new world to redress the balance of the old." From the numerous and enterprising exiles in Australia who cannot see in the language of the *Æneid* :—

" A race from whence new Albion's sons shall come,  
And the long glories of a future Rome?"

The current epoch is remarkable for the number, utility, and magnificence of the public works executed in the country. Almost all the railways which intersect the country have been constructed since the accession of queen Victoria, and will give her reign an imposing attitude in the page of history. In these undertakings valleys have been traversed by embankments or viaducts, and hills intersected by artificial chasms or penetrated by tunnels, forming, with the amount of building required and ironwork laid down, an unparalleled monument of human industry. In some of the constructions there are marvellous displays of mechanical genius, as in the tubular bridges which span the Menai Strait and the Conway river. In shipbuilding, also, the same marvellous mechanical genius has been exhibited, as in the *Great Eastern* steamship, which may rank among the wonders of the world. Another marvellous display of genius may be seen in the electro-telegraphic communication which has not only been established between the metropolis and provincial towns, but, by the use of submarine wires, between England and the Continent. Important intelligence is now transmitted through the country and from realm to realm, which seems to annihilate space and time. In 1668 three months elapsed before the news of the abdication of James II. reached the Orkneys : at the present time it would not take three hours to relate the particulars of such an event. The public buildings which have been erected, enlarged, and adorned in this epoch are too numerous to mention. Everywhere genius, capital, and labour have united to adorn the country with magnificent specimens of architecture. Palaces, churches of extraordinary beauty, hospitals, markets, and public buildings for all imaginable purposes, have been erected, and still the grand work of social progress is considered incomplete. Of the great empire over which queen Victoria sways the British sceptre it has been justly said that the sun never sets thereon. It exceeds the limits of any other empire, embraces more than double the area of the continent of Europe, and comprises 240,000,000 of subjects, that is, one-fifth of the entire human family. Among this multitudinous population the English language is more or less heard, and to that vast population the small island of Great Britain is the centre of influence and the source of authority. It has been justly remarked : " Not one hour of the twenty-four, not one round of

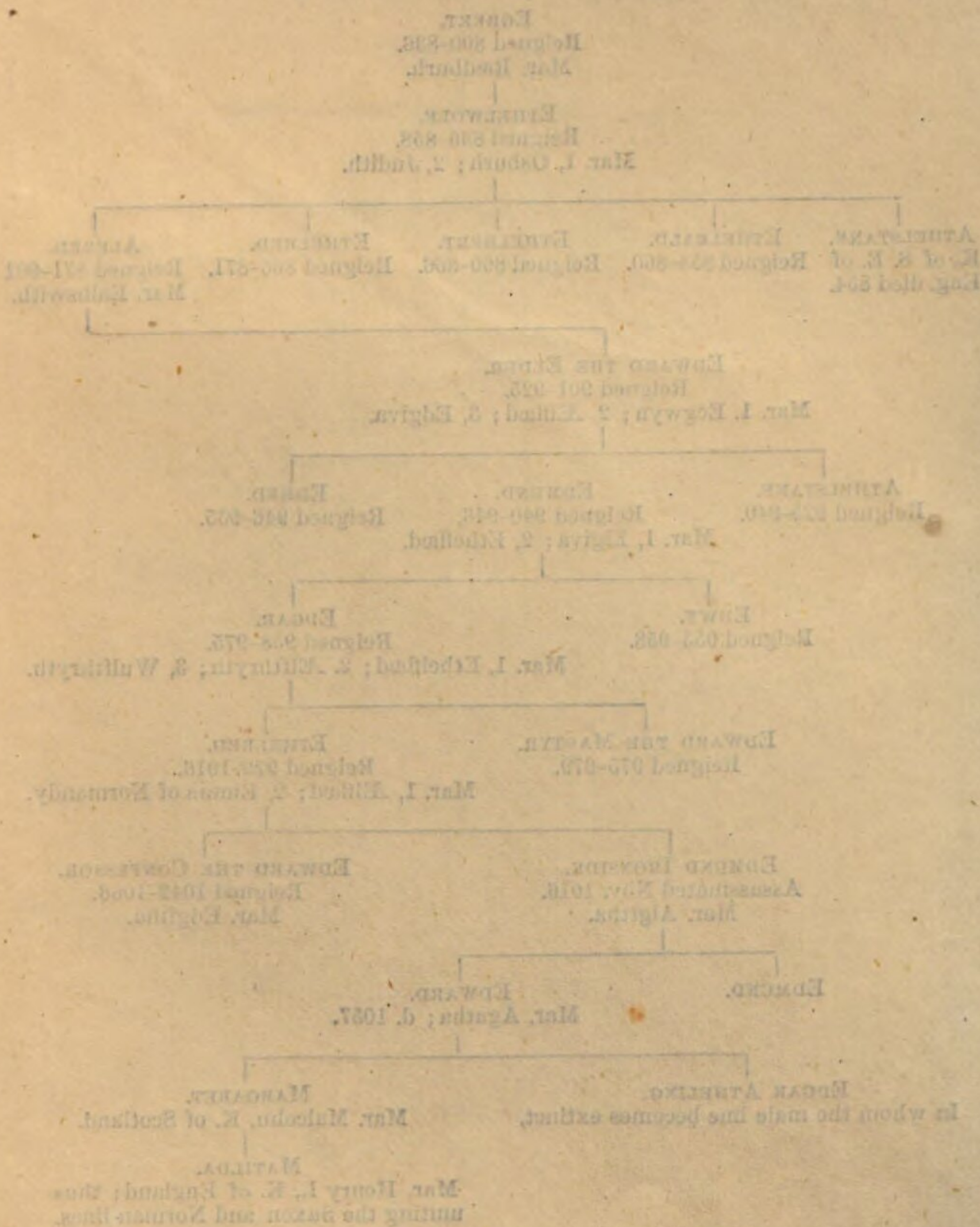
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what was the current epoch remarkable? Can you enumerate any of the works it produced? Of what extent is the British empire, and what is the supposed number of its population? Repeat the closing remarks of this history.



the minute-hand is allowed to pass over the dial, in which, on some portion of the surface of the globe, the air is not filled with accents that are ours. They are heard in the ordinary transactions of life or in the administration of law, in the deliberations of the senate-house or in the council-chamber, in the offices of private devotion or in the public observance of the rites and duties of a common faith." Such is the majesty of England at the close of this history. Its annals commenced with the records of a rude and barbarous people thinly scattered over their native island ; it concludes with the records of a nation in the highest state of civilization, which not only inhabits the island of its nativity, but which has peopled colonies and kingdoms, and, with a noble queen at its head, rules the world.

THE HOUSE OF ROBERT.



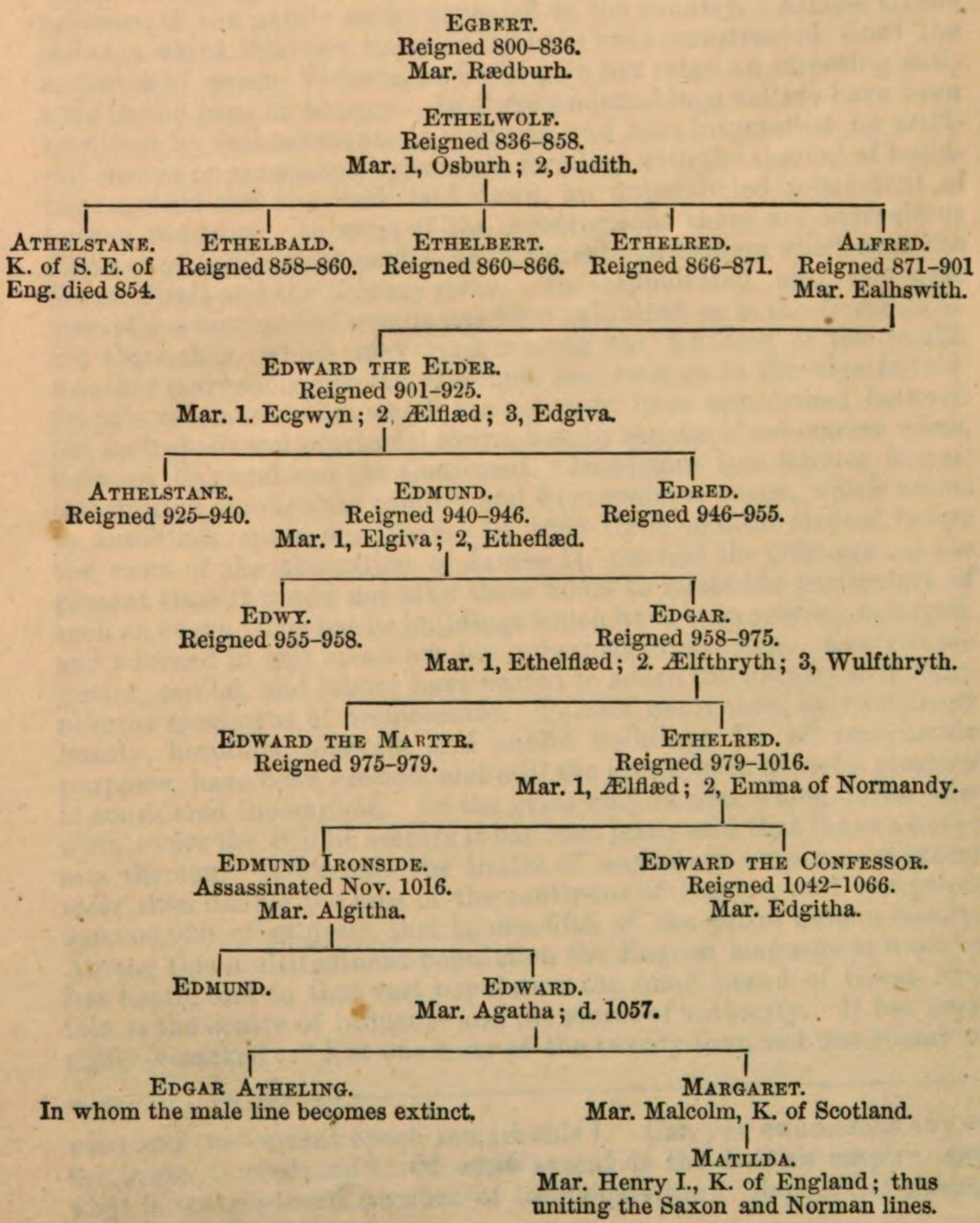


# GENEALOGICAL TABLES

OF

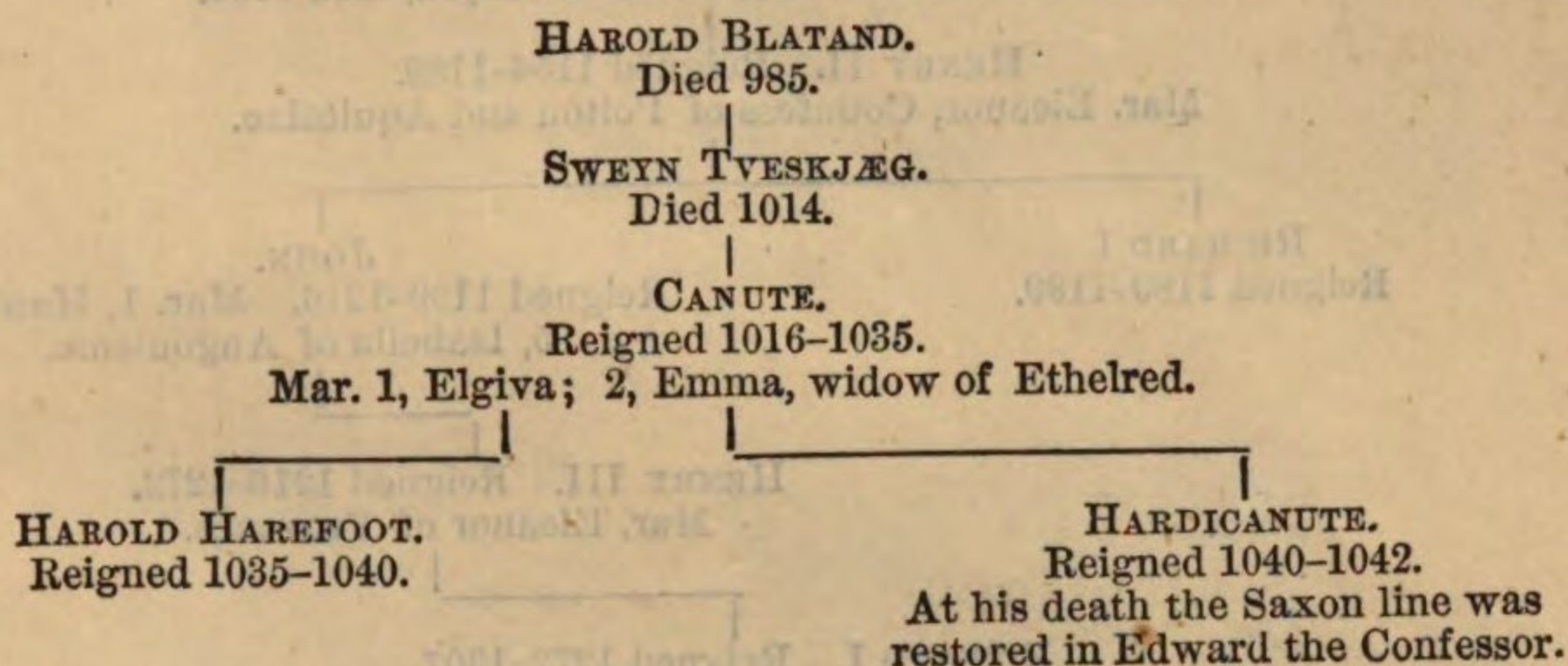
## THE KINGS OF ENGLAND.

### THE HOUSE OF EGBERT.

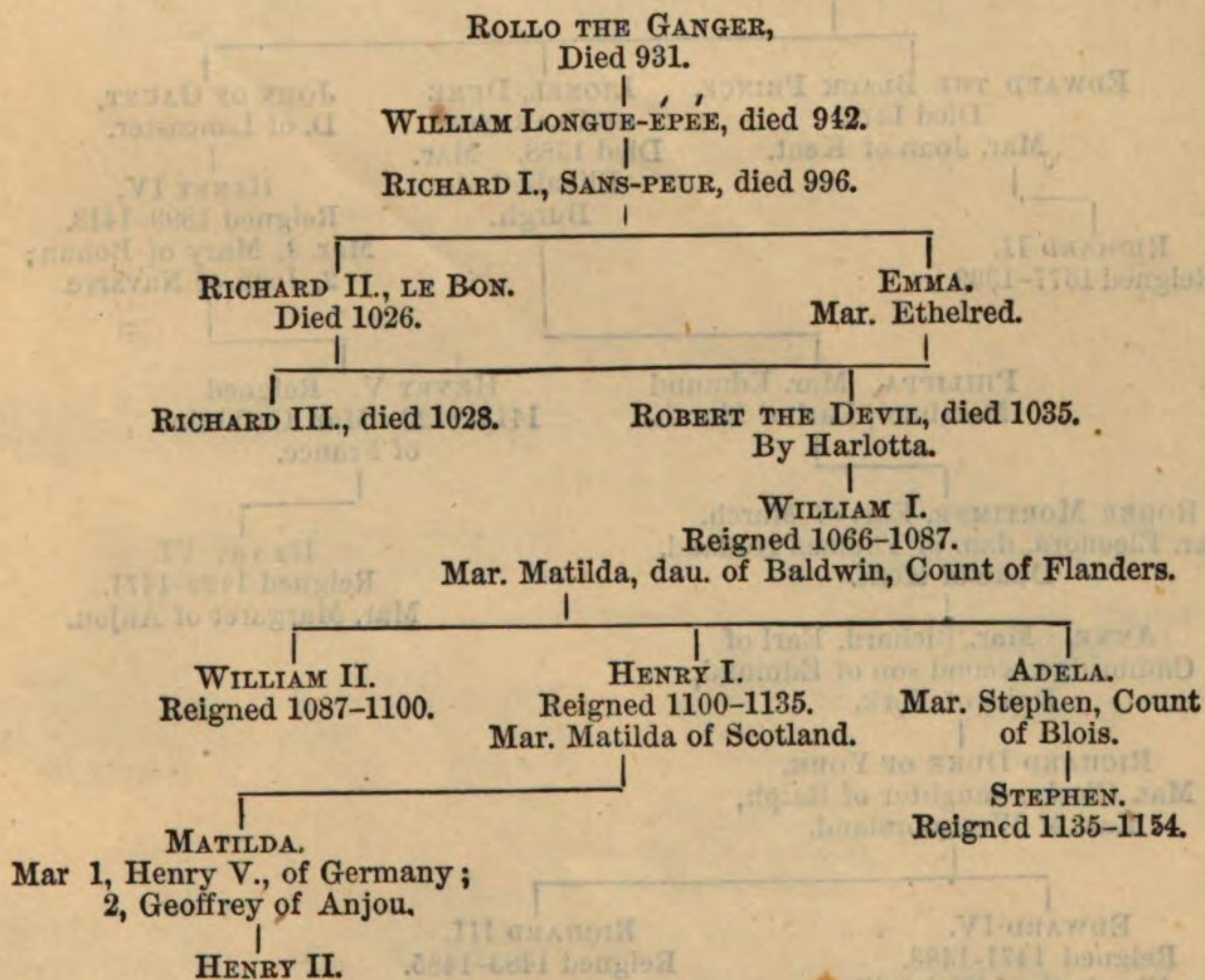




THE ANGLO-DANISH KINGS.



THE NORMAN KINGS.





## THE HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET.

GEOFFRY PLANTAGENET, Count of Anjou, died 1151.

HENRY II. Reigned 1154-1189.  
Mar. Eleanor, Countess of Poitou and Aquitaine.RICHARD I.  
Reigned 1189-1199.JOHN.  
Reigned 1199-1216. Mar. 1, Hawisa;  
5, Isabella of Angouleme.HENRY III. Reigned 1216-1272.  
Mar. Eleanor of Provence.EDWARD I. Reigned 1272-1307.  
Mar. 1, Eleanor of Castile;  
2, Margaret of France.EDWARD II. Reigned 1307-1327.  
Mar. Isabella of France.EDWARD III. Reigned 1327-1377.  
Mar. Phillipa of Hainhault.EDWARD THE BLACK PRINCE.  
Died 1376.  
Mar. Joan of Kent.LIONEL, DUKE  
OF CLARENCE.  
Died 1388. Mar.  
Elizabeth de  
Burgh.JOHN OF GAUNT,  
D. of Lancaster.RICHARD II.  
Reigned 1377-1399.HENRY IV.  
Reigned 1399-1413.  
Mar. 1, Mary of Bohun;  
2, Joan of Navarre.PHILIPPA. Mar. Edmund  
Mortimer, Earl of March.HENRY V. Reigned  
1413-1422. Mar. Catherine  
of France.ROGER MORTIMER, Earl of March.  
Mar. Eleonora, dau. of Thomas Holland,  
Duke of Kent.HENRY VI.  
Reigned 1422-1471.  
Mar. Margaret of Anjou.ANNE. Mar. Richard, Earl of  
Cambridge, second son of Edmund,  
Duke of York.RICHARD DUKE OF YORK.  
Mar. Cicely, daughter of Ralph,  
Earl of Westmoreland.EDWARD IV.  
Reigned 1471-1483.  
Mar. Elizabeth of Woodville.RICHARD III.  
Reigned 1483-1485.EDWARD V.  
Reigned 1483.  
(Murdered by his  
uncle Richard.)ELIZABETH.  
Mar. Henry VII.



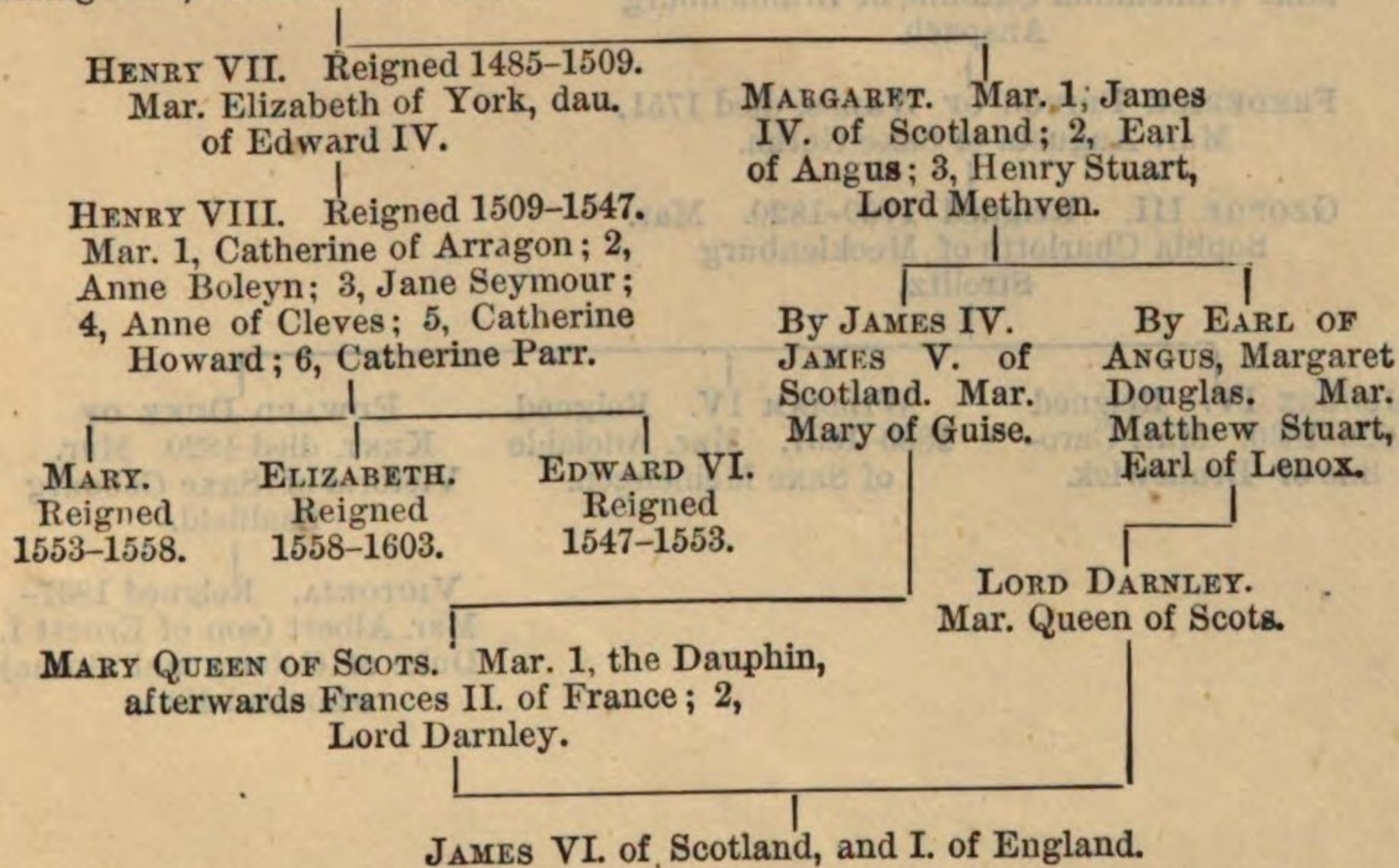
THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

JOHN OF GAUNT, son of Edward III., married Catherine Swynford, by whom he had issue John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset. Died 1418.

JOHN BEAUFORT, Duke of Somerset, died 1444: had issue, John Beaufort the younger.

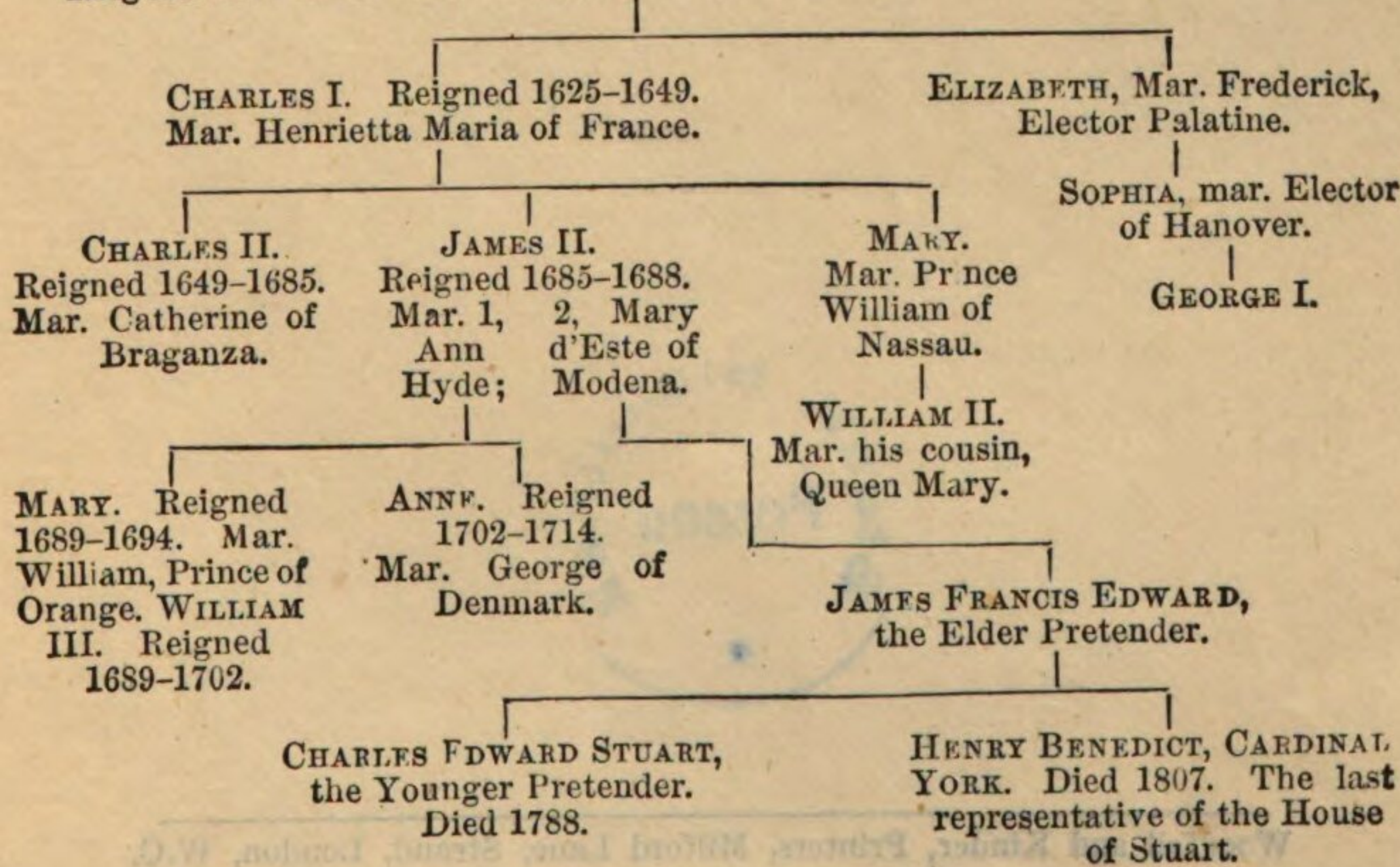
JOHN BEAUFORT the younger, Duke of Somerset, had issue Margaret, who married Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, son of Owen Tudor by Catherine of France, widow of Henry V.

EDMUND TUDOR and MARGARET had issue Henry, who, on the downfall of the Plantagenets, ascended the throne.



THE HOUSE OF STUART.

JAMES I. Son of Mary Queen of Scots and Darnley.  
Reigned 1603-1625. Mar. Anne of Denmark.





## THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

## HANOVER.

GEORGE I., son of the Duke of Brunswick Luneburg, afterwards Elector of Hanover, and Sophia, daughter of the Elector Palatine, and Elizabeth, daughter of James I. Reigned 1714-1727. Married Sophia of Zell.

GEORGE II. Reigned 1727-1760.  
Mar. Wilhelmina Caroline of Brandenburg  
Anspach.

FREDERICK PRINCE OF WALES, died 1751.  
Mar. Augusta of Saxe Gotha.

GEORGE III. Reigned 1760-1820. Mar.  
Sophia Charlotte of Mecklenburg  
Strelitz.

GEORGE IV. Reigned  
1820-1830. Mar. Caro-  
line of Brunswick.

WILLIAM IV. Reigned  
1830-1837. Mar. Adelaide  
of Saxe Meinengen.

EDWARD DUKE OF  
KENT, died 1820. Mar.  
Victoria of Saxe Cobourg  
Saalfeld.

VICTORIA. Reigned 1837-  
Mar. Albert (son of Ernest I.,  
Duke of Coburg and Gotha),  
who died 1861.

















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